The Nation.

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The Week.

WE go to press before the Chicago Convention has produced either a platform or a nominee, but Mr. Cleveland's candidacy is a foregone conclusion. Whatever be the unanimity, real or apparent, of the delegates, his choice has been fixed by the country at large. The people of both parties have seen in him the appointed leader of the opposition to the policy of the party in power. This fact is a conclusive argument against the sentimental objections to a Presidential second term. Mr. Harrison's renomination was hardly less so, for, though he is not a popular personage, he was early seen to be the only available candidate; and logically the Republicans were committed to a vindication of their policy in his administration. Either party had an option of suicide by nominating a Blaine, a Hill, or a Gorman, and the bosses would have been capable of this folly; but their shortsightedness and their machinations alike were irresistibly overruled by public sentiment. We shall, therefore, have the rare privilege of a canvass between men who are to be tried not by personalities — though personal qualities will tell—but by the policies they stand for and by their respective administrations. This will not give us a "singing campaign," or one in which the blackguards and the blatherskites will play the leading rôle; but the appeal must now be to sober reason in defence of principles, and on the ground of history and not of prophecy.

The Supreme Court of Michigan has done only what every well-informed man expected in deciding, by a unanimous vote of the three Republican and two Democratic judges, that the so-called Miner electoral law is constitutional. This law was passed by the last Democratic Legislature, and divided the State into two electoral districts at large by a north and south line, and into twelve Congressional districts, each of the fourteen to choose one Presidential elector. The Republican managers, under the foolish advice of ex-Congressman Cutcheon, concluded to question the validity of this law, upon the absurd ground, as he expressed it, that "the bill is revolutionary in its character," since Presidential electors had always and everywhere been chosen by the State at large on a general ticket. Mr. Cutcheon finally learned that the district system had been generally employed for forty years after the adoption of the Constitution, under the provision which explicitly gives each State the right to appoint its Presidential electors "in such manner as the Legislature thereof may direct"; but the party had by that time been so far committed to a contest in the courts that the matter was pressed. Of course the judges have made short work of all the quibbles employed, and decided that "the statute must stand as the lawful edict of the Legislature." The court adds, very properly, that though such a law is valid, it is obviously unjust that one State should adopt the district system while all the rest stick to the usual plan. Indeed, it was a piece of the grossest partisanship for an accidental Democratic Legislature to put through such a measure in a Republican State.

The practical effect of this decision is to insure a division of Michigan's electoral vote this year. The State has had eleven representatives in Congress, and will have twelve under the new apportionment. Under the old apportionment the Democrats have never carried less than two of the eleven districts (their number in 1888), while they have gone as high as five in 1886, six in 1882, seven in 1884, and eight in 1890. Under the new apportionment the Democrats count confidently upon getting half of the twelve Congressional districts next fall, and one of the two districts at large, thus dividing the total fourteen equally between the parties. In any case, they are certain of at least two or three, so that, for the first time since the Republican party was formed, its candidate for President will not get all of Michigan's electoral votes.

The President probably did not mean anything very serious by advising the Senate on Monday to devise some measure of injury to Canadians "with deliberation, and yet with promptness." It seems as if he had purposely chosen a time for bringing up the matter when it would be ignored by the country, in the absorption of Convention week. Yet his message deserves more notice than it will receive. The precedent set in Mr. Harrison's Chilian message is here faithfully followed. In the course of a negotiation and while, as he admits, "awaiting the further communication from the Government of Canada," he makes his side of the case public, insists that his interpretation of the intent of foreign legislation and of an article in the Treaty of 1871 is the only possible one, and, with a hinted charge of bad faith against the Canadian Commissioners, urges the Senate to consider the case closed and to proceed to judgment. If the President is not careful, he will go into history as a writer of "just-in-time" messages.

The dispute arises over the rebate granted by the Canadian Government to wheat carried through the Welland Canal to Montreal for export shipment. The President asserts that this rebate is in violation of article 27 of the Treaty of 1871, which undertakes to "secure to the citizens of the United States the use of the Welland, St. Lawrence, and other canals in the Dominion, on terms of equality with the inhabitants of the Dominion." The Canadians, on the other hand, assert that there is no discrimination in the granting of the rebate, that it will be given to American shippers or vessels on precisely the same conditions as to Canadian, and that the measure is simply one of domestic legislation designed to foster export trade at Montreal. This reply the President declares to be "wholly evasive," which is emphatic if not diplomatic. He also has to report an "unfortunate misunderstanding," which is his phrase for our old friend "a question of veracity," so inevitable in negotiations in which Mr. Blaine has a part. The ex-Secretary asserted that an "informal engagement" had been made by the Canadian Commissioners "to repeal and abandon" the rebate; the latter, however, declare that this statement "does not conform to their understanding," and that "the only assurance" they had given was that the "complaint of the United States Government should be taken into consideration by the Canadian Ministry." It will probably seem fitting to the Senate, in view of this contradiction and of the incomplete nature of the diplomatic correspondence, to proceed "with deliberation," as the President suggests, if not with "promptness," as he also suggests.

It may be that a ship-railway around the Dalles of the Columbia River, and a canal to connect Lake Washington with Puget Sound, are desirable enterprises, and it is possible that it may be for the public interest that the Government should construct them. Just now, however, these schemes may be in a way to promote the general welfare with less expense by stopping the passage of the River and Harbor Bill. It is of the utmost importance that there should be some economies effected at once, for the Treasury is so nearly empty that it could not stand the slightest drain. The suspension of river and harbor improvement is of course wasteful, but it would be a much greater calamity should the Treasury be unable to pay gold to those who demanded it. The proper course for the Democratic majority in the House of Representatives to pursue would have been to reduce expenditures in all departments, including that of public improvements. As they failed to adopt a judicious policy in this respect, the best thing for them to do now is to refuse to concur in any of the Senate's amendments increasing appropriations.

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There is something familiar about the introduction of a telegram into the tin-plate debate in Congress on Thursday, announcing that another factory would be ready, some time in the dim future, to make vast quantities of American tin plate. Two years ago, despatches of that sort played a great part in Republican arguments for an increase of duty, McKinley being especially profuse in them. According to him and Senator Allison, we were to be producing by this time "substantially" all the tin plate we consume. They now adjourn the date of the successful establishment of this infant industry, and add a fresh lot of discordant opinions to the mass already existing on the question of how long it will really take to create an industry by tariff taxes. The Tariff Act of 1789 was to run for seven years, that length of time being then thought to be sufficient to get an infant to walking alone. The protective duty on cotton in the tariff of 1816 was to be levied for only three years. By 1832 the infant was found to be so fearfully weak that Clay assigned twenty-five years as the time it would take to get it out of the cradle. That high protectionist authority, ex-Prof. Thompson, declares that "it will ordinarily take the lifetime of two generations to acclimatize thoroughly a new manufacture, and to bring the native production up to the native demand." This leaves the outlook decidedly gloomy. It is now generally conceded, even by Republicans, that it will take at least "four years more" for the McKinley Bill to be understood, and if its miraculous benefits in the matter of tin plate are to be reaped only by our descendants in the second generation, it would seem that the Presidential candidacy of McKinley will have to be deferred till about 1950.

Senator Stewart made it perfectly plain, in his comment on Thursday upon Mr. Morrill's vigorous speech, that the free-silver extremists regard the international conference with deep disgust as a neat little scheme to block their agitation without promising to further their wishes in the least. What they want is a general surrender to their wildest demands, irrespective of other nations and irrespective of party sentiment. Teller and Bland talk a great deal about the need of a President who will not set himself above his party, and will not veto a free-coinage bill. The Republican platform is supposed to embody this idea in its declaration in favor of settling the silver question "by legislation." But what this demand really amounts to is, that the President shall not oppose a veto, not to a measure of his party, but to the free-silver men of all parties. For neither the Democratic nor the Republican party has passed a free-coinage bill by its own votes. Such a bill passed the Senate two years ago by a combination between Democrats and Republicans, and the Bland Bill would not have come so near passing this year as it did had not eleven Republicans voted with the Democrats. It is the simple fact that neither party by itself can or will pass a free-coinage law. Thus the demand that the President shall ignore his constitutional obligation at the behest of his party, comes down to the impudent and absurd demand that he shall do so at the behest of the free-silverites of all parties or no party.

Texas must be added to the number of rabid free-coinage States that are unbending in their determination to make other people take silver while they will themselves have nothing but gold. We have received a copy of an ordinary stationer's blank for a promissory note, intended for use in Texas, and in it the words "in gold" are printed in small capitals. It is also the testimony of New York bankers dealing in Texas notes, that the latter almost invariably contain the gold clause. This is but in keeping with the traditions of the State, which, we believe, maintained the gold standard all through the rebellion, taking Confederate notes only when forced to do so. But what a spectacle it is when Senator Stewart's "gold Moloch" is thus seen to move on its destructive car out of his dreadful Wall Street and crush into subjection the leading silver States of the country.

It was predicted last year, when it became apparent that Europe must buy from us more than double its usual quantity of grain, that the debt would be paid by sales of American securities. The prediction has been fulfilled in such a manner that the process of operation has been more than usually open. The exports of grain alone from this country, in the ten months ending with the 1st of May, 1892, were worth $262,002,371, against only $101,539,749 for the same months in the preceding year. In the whole list of exports the increase was so great that the "trade balance" in our favor, on the business of the same period, was more than $200,000,000. Something over thirty millions in gold was sent to us from Europe in the fall of the year as part settlement of this difference; but it was not until our own security markets had begun to reflect the favorable turn of events that it was clearly seen how Europe was paying the balance. How large was the amount of its American holdings sold during the fall and winter rise in prices can only be guessed. Estimates of an almost fabulous magnitude have been made by conservative bankers; but all that can be said with certainty is, that every advance in stock-market prices based upon home buying, since the opening of the year, has been met by heavy sales of securities for foreign account. The problem of American bankers very soon ceased to be, Will Europe sell or will it buy? and shaped itself, instead, into the query, When will Europe's hoards of our securities be exhausted? The sales were at all events so large as to turn the actual balance of exchange in the opposite direction.

Since the opening of the year, almost as much gold has been exported from this country to Europe as was imported in the fall of 1891. A little while ago it was believed that the outward movement of specie had come to an end, and hopeful observers of the markets, both here and abroad, predicted the early return of European investors. These hopes were disappointed. In the face of the favorable crop report for May, and the consequent advance of money-market prices, foreigners resumed their selling, and eight millions in gold has just been shipped for Europe. To investors on this side of the Atlantic, this continued "unloading" from abroad has been in many ways discouraging. Yet it is not without its encouraging side. The general advance in our own prices, in spite of the foreign selling, shows that this country was rich enough to buy what Europe was too poor to keep. The favorable security market supplied by this country has undoubtedly averted a much more serious foreign crisis.

Will anybody be kind enough to inform us what has become of that investigation of Egan and McCreery which was to be vigorously undertaken by the State and Navy Departments? It is more than a month ago that this was promised by Messrs. Blaine and Tracy. Deference to those gentlemen was all that prevented Congress from taking up the inquiry at the time, and Representative Breckinridge intimated that this deference could not be made an excuse for unwarranted delays. A strange mystery seems to attach to the movements of the accused officials. They were due in this country at least two weeks ago, but, if they have arrived, it must have been incognito. McCreery, in an absent-minded moment, may have made a mistake and taken a steamer for England, but Egan, for obvious reasons, would not have been guilty of such an oversight. We hope to see an inquiry as to his whereabouts and his achievements set on foot in Congress as soon as the National Convention is over.

The address lately delivered before the Bar Association of Georgia by Chief-Justice Bleckley of that State is one of the most complete arraignments of mobs ever made. Following close upon the proclamation of Gov. Northen, it may help to check the lawlessness which has of late been so rife in Georgia and in neighboring States. Chief-Justice Bleckley declares that mobs would not exist if we could silence their deluded advocates and apologists. He especially deplores the tone of those newspapers which confound the mob with the people, and treat some, if not all, instances of mob violence as cases in which the people act in their own behalf and take justice in their own hands. He maintains that mobs are not the people; that they who compose

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them are for the time seceders from organized society who outrage its fundamental principles and trample on its institutions. He even contends that if all the people should perpetrate an act of violence on the worst of criminals, the case would not be one in which the people had taken justice into their own hands, but one in which, in violation of their own law, they had inflicted injustice in the name of justice. "In such matters," he adds, "the people cannot act otherwise than through their legitimate agents. By appointing these agents and committing all punitive power into their hands, to be exercised in the name of the people and for the good of the people, the people renounced completely and for ever all right and all power to transact such business in person or by means of their own direct intervention." This language is not too strong. The Chief Justice asks what newspaper would speak with approbation of the people assembling in a mass and making laws? Why, then, should mob agency in the administration of laws be countenanced? By interfering in the first instance, or by reviewing the verdict, as in the New Orleans case, they make the jury system contemptible. As Chief-Justice Bleckley well says, "Anything which assumes to be better and tends to make itself bigger than the jury is out of place where trial by jury is an institution of the country and forms the chief bulwark for the security of person and property. Society works by and through established institutions, and can work wisely and safely in no other way. To weaken or discredit these institutions is to enfeeble government and bring authority into contempt."

By a vote of 19 to 3 the trustees of the University of Pennsylvania decided last week to remove Prof. R. E. Thompson from the chair which he had been previously, but in vain, requested to resign. The deposed professor gives to the public a letter addressed by him to the trustees, and in it there is evidence of a deep-laid conspiracy against the foremost university exponent of the "American doctrine of protection." In the first place, he says that he has vainly appealed to the trustees "for the reasons for this action," but has not been shown "even the courtesy of a refusal to give them." This looks bad. If Prof. Thompson were simply incompetent or personally offensive, what could be easier than to tell him so? The inference is unavoidable that the real "reasons" could not bear the light of day, and everybody knows that any form of assault upon protection is a thing that has to be kept very dark in Pennsylvania. Prof. Thompson himself is clearly of the opinion that the cause of protection has received a grievous stab in his person, for he puts first among the reasons for his removal, as he has "gathered" them, "that I have been teaching political economy while occupying the chair of History and English Literature." He mentions other rumored "reasons," only to denounce them as "not the real ones," and he begs the trustees "to have the candor to assign the real reasons for your action." Every lover of fair play will sympathize with this effort to force disguised enemies of protection to come out and declare themselves for what they really are.

College commencements have steadily worked back towards the first of June during the past ten years, and, in compensation, many of the colleges have adopted the Charles Lamb principle of making up for coming late to his office by going away early—that is, they have put the opening of the college year a week or so further along towards October. That the increasing length of the vacation involved is a matter of some concern to college authorities may be inferred from a short communication on the subject in the *North American Review* by President Thwing. He protests against a "too-long vacation" mainly on the ground of the dissipation of energy and loss of studious habits resulting to the student, inasmuch as the teacher, he believes, usefully employs a good part of the three months of freedom from the duties of the class-room. This idleness during one-quarter of the year may furnish a point of attack to those who are trying to shorten the college course and make it possible for graduates to begin their professional studies a year earlier. We believe that the new Chicago University contemplates four terms of twelve weeks each—with a substitution of professors during one term—so that a student may, if he chooses, make his course almost continuous and get over four years' ground in three years. The obstinate fact back of the present system is the relation of the colleges to the social demands of their chief patrons. Fifty years ago the long vacation in some New England colleges fell in the winter, so that undergraduates might teach for three months and thus help to pay their way. Changing social conditions have come to demand the summer as the free time, and it is difficult to see how the colleges are to withstand it so long as their present relations to society continue.

The problem of an ignorant negro vote, which has made so much trouble in our Southern States, and which has been solved by some of them, it must be confessed, rather after the manner of Alexander with the Gordian knot, receives some light from an unexpected quarter. A correspondent of the London *Times* at Cape Town, South Africa, explains a reform of the suffrage which has been put forth by the Government of that colony, as necessitated by the fact that the colored population outnumbers the white by three to one. At present every man, black or white, has a vote if he occupies a dwelling worth £25, or earns wages of £25 a year with board and lodging, or of £50 in money. As hardly any dwelling fit for the habitation of civilized man can be constructed for £25, it is plain that the suffrage was intended to be practically manhood suffrage for all except the native barbarian, whose worldly goods, as the *Times's* correspondent says, "are represented by a blanket and a bundle of wattles." The intention has been fulfilled so far as to give the suffrage to every laboring man, white or colored, but the barbarian vote is showing a startling disposition to increase. Moreover, certain lewd fellows of the carpet-bagger sort are beginning to control this vote, with the result that the conservative element has felt it wise to oppose a policy of expansion and development, as tending to the annexation of regions inhabited exclusively by a colored population.

To meet the difficulty, it was proposed last year to confer a dual vote upon education and property, but the objections to this plan were insuperable. This year, however, the Government has brought forward a bill providing that the voter must be an occupant of a dwelling worth £75 instead of £25, or receive wages amounting to £50 a year exclusive of board and lodging, and every applicant must write his name and address before he can be registered; but no voter now qualified is to be disfranchised. It seems that a provision of this kind is not unacceptable to the better class of natives, who would thus be distinguished from their semi-savage relatives. Considering that the cost of dwellings has much increased, and that the rate of wages is very high in the Cape Colony, it seems probably true, as is claimed, that no man who really works for his living will be excluded from the franchise. It may be that some modification of this plan would be acceptable to both races in our own Southern States.

Little was accomplished by the Central American Diet which recently met in San Salvador. Costa Rica sent no representatives to it, but the delegates from the four other republics agreed upon a sort of defensive alliance between their countries. They also decided to call together another Diet in September, 1893, to which should be invited the Ministers of Colombia, Mexico, and the United States resident in Central America, when a serious attempt should be made to finally bring about the long-delayed Central-American Union. The Colombian and Mexican Ministers were probably invited in order to give assurances that the proposed confederation would meet with no disfavor from its neighbors, north and south, and the representative of the United States to lend a benevolent, big-brother sort of sanction to the project. But the plan has so often seemed close to realization, only to be broken off by some quarrel, that a wholesome scepticism in regard to success next year is but natural.

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PUBLIC OPINION AND CONVENTIONS.

THE growing importance of the Machine as an element in the organization of a party has led of late years to some questioning as to whether national conventions could longer be depended upon to carry out the theory of their existence. This theory is that such a body will bring together the chosen representatives of the party from every State of the Union—its picked men—and that these delegates will counsel together as to the wisest course for the organization to take. Theoretically this is an excellent arrangement; while not perfect, the best that any one has yet been able to devise.

Practically, however, the convention system has often been found to work very differently, so far as relates to minor officials and lesser party issues. In many of our cities nobody can vote at a caucus of either party unless his name is enrolled as a member of the organization. The total membership of such an organization is never more than a small minority of the voters of the party. Moreover, it is a rare thing to have a full representation of the organization, a small element usually "running" the caucuses. It is, therefore, not only possible, but common, to see a city convention the delegates to which have been chosen by a minority of the organization which is itself a minority of the party. In the country districts the same result may be reached by shrewd management on the part of the local machines, while the way is always open for unscrupulous men to control caucuses illegitimately by sharp practice in giving short notice of the meetings, appointing them at inconvenient places, and resorting to other such "dodges."

So successful have these methods often proved in securing control of local offices, and even sometimes in the case of a State convention, that professional politicians have hoped, and good citizens have feared, that they might be applied with equal success to a national convention. If a city boss could run a municipal convention, and a State boss a State convention, why should not a combination of State bosses control the national gathering of a party?

The attempt has been twice made during the present year, and under as auspicious conditions for the bosses as could reasonably be expected. Each party was to nominate a candidate for President. Each party had a man within the range of choice who was opposed by the bosses of his party. In each party the bosses were bent upon one thing—the rejection of this man; and in each case they felt at first great assurance of success. Platt, Quay, and Clarkson have been the three most prominent men in the Republican organizations of their respective States for many years; and their States were the chief commonwealth in the Union, the second largest, and an important State in the West. They were hand and glove with managers of the same type in many other States. They controlled the National Committee of the party. They and all of their kind were resolved upon the defeat of Harrison, and they flattered themselves that they had everything in their own hands. Meanwhile a similar combination was at work in the Democratic party to prevent the nomination of Cleveland. It is always expected that a candidate for the nomination shall be supported by the delegation from his own State—and especially so when he lives in a doubtful State. The Democratic counterpart of "Tom" Platt as a boss in New York therefore set out to secure, at all hazards, a "regular" delegation from this State against Cleveland. Hill succeeded completely in his purpose. All that remained, it seemed to him, was to strike hands with the bosses in other States, whom he knew to be as much opposed to Cleveland as he was himself. Then the combination could say to the delegates: "The party must carry New York to win the election. The delegation from New York is unanimous in declaring that Cleveland cannot carry New York. The one thing you must not do is to nominate Cleveland."

It seemed to the bosses in each party as though they must succeed. They had run their own State Conventions so long that they could not see why, if they united their forces, they should not run a national convention. What they left out of account was the power of public opinion. The masses of the Republican party favored the nomination of Harrison—not with enthusiasm, not from admiration of the man, but because he seemed the logical candidate, the strongest representative. The masses of the Democratic party favor the nomination of Cleveland with ten-fold force, not simply as the logical candidate and the strongest representative, but as the object of their enthusiastic admiration. It was this sentiment of the body of the party against which the combination of Republican bosses at Minneapolis ran and were broken. It is the similar and far stronger sentiment among the Democracy which is, as we go to press, visibly wrecking the anti-Cleveland "combine" at Chicago. Harrison had able managers in the Republican Convention, as Cleveland has in the Democratic, and such management is essential; but New would have been powerless at Minneapolis, and Whitney would be at Chicago, if it were not for the underlying and resistless force of the opinion of the party at large.

The defeat of the anti-Harrison scheme in the Republican party, and the already assured defeat of the anti-Cleveland scheme in the Democratic party, are causes for equal rejoicing on the part of all good citizens. Such events show that public opinion still controls in America. As Abraham Lincoln said in one of his joint debates with Douglas: "With public sentiment on its side, everything succeeds; with public sentiment against it, nothing succeeds." Mr. Bryce, in his 'American Commonwealth,' pointed out that "the strong point of the American system, the dominant fact of the situation, is the healthiness of public opinion, and the control which it exerts." The defeat of the spoils-seeking politicians in each party this year emphasizes the truth of this observation.

THE BLIGHT ON LEGISLATURES.

IT has been a theory, often and very earnestly set forth by its advocates, that large legislative bodies are in themselves no small safeguard against corrupt lawmaking. If, however, we test that idea by certain facts of the last few years in three New England States, apparently little remains for it to rest upon. Five years ago the most corrupt and scandalous legislative episodes in the history of New Hampshire were disclosed in what was known as the "Concord Railroad fight" at the capital of that State. Yet the lower house of the New Hampshire Legislature contains 344 members, and is, we believe, the largest legislative body of all the States in the Union. Two years later came the equally corrupt "parallel railroad" contest in Connecticut, which has a lower house of 252 members. Massachusetts has a lower house of 240 members, yet the unsavory "West End" scandal of two years ago has just been followed by doings which stamp the present Legislature of the State as probably the most venal which ever sat at Boston. Not only is the "big membership" theory thus pretty thoroughly disposed of, but also most gloomy evidence is offered of the general decay of legislative morals—a decay which unfortunately seems to strike deeper as civilization in the American commonwealths advances.

It is peculiarly impressive, as we trace out the growth of this legislative evil in the old Puritan commonwealths, to see how it has been marked by the almost complete extinction of what may be called the "honorary" conception of membership of a legislative body. In the old days the New England legislatures were "general courts," not merely in formal title, but in common parlance. Somewhat of the dignity of the judge went along with membership in them. The pay was almost nothing; the illicit profits quite so; but the personal honor of the position was very considerable. The farm communities, therefore, almost invariably sent up to the State capitals their best men, and sent them up over and over again. Usually it was the country squire, but, if a farmer, it was the farmer who was the leader in town meeting, apt to be the best-lettered man of his class, and usually the owner of many well-ordered acres. He took his election, moreover, not only as a matter of grave personal responsibility, but as a civic badge of the highest dignity and as a sort of decoration. In actual legislation he may have been an opinionated, cramped partisan,

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but his integrity was flawless, and pride of place as well as his conscience checked the slightest tendency to a dishonorable act.

As time has gone on and the old General Courts of New England, with their one or two hundred judges, have been superseded by the "Legislature," with increased membership in the popular branch, the "honorary" impulse seems to have completely died out, or rather to have been abased into an impulse almost purely material. Some of the reasons are plain enough. The lowered *morale* of voting constituencies, the corporative influence, the weakened tone of the farm communities, the rise of cities, and the immense mass of diversified business which precipitates itself on the modern Legislature are some of the more palpable causes. In New England very distinctly, and somewhat less so in other parts of the country, there has been generated as a powerful secondary cause the "rotative" habit, and the theory that the place of legislator must be "passed around." The General Court of Massachusetts in 1790 contained out of a total of 204 representatives no less than 101 who had been reëlected from the previous year. Nowadays, in the districts made up of several towns, the place must be passed around in succession, and the town that takes it twice, no matter how competent and honest the incumbent, is "hoggish." But the development of this pernicious notion is most clearly manifest in Connecticut, where it has been intensified by the large number of legislative prizes under a constitutional system in which each of the towns sends at least one representative and many of the little towns two. Its progressive character is shown by decades in the table annexed, brought down through a century to the present time:

	Whole No. of Representatives.	Reëlected from previous year.	Per cent. reëlected.
1790	171	109	63.7
1800	189	102	54.0
1810	199	83	41.7
1820	204	53	26.0
1830	208	47	22.6
1840	212	27	12.7
1850	222	27	12.2
1860	236	30	12.7
1870	239	24	10.0
1880	246	23	9.3
1892	252	23	9.1

How absolutely fatal to any theory of legislative responsibility such a state of affairs must be is obvious. It simply tempts a man of easy-going principles to make the most of his "good time" as a legislator; if corrupt, to sell his vote and influence as often as he can; and, even if both able and honest, it spurs him on with no hope of appreciation by his constituents and consequently of continued usefulness. In short, the custom of rotation has caused the State legislator's place to be looked on not as a public trust and dignity but as a kind of perquisite.

NEWSPAPER COPYRIGHT.

A SUIT of importance in defining the right of literary property has recently been decided in favor of the London *Times*. That journal had so long been the passive victim of journalistic pilfering as to lead many persons to argue that a custom had been established which was superior to the law, and it was high time to take some step in repression of the abuse. The Parliamentary reports of the *Times* are said to have been for years regularly telegraphed to the provincial papers in time for their morning editions, its foreign correspondence has been freely made use of, and its telegrams have been appropriated bodily. During the recent troubles in the Argentine Republic, the despatches in two days from Buenos Ayres alone cost the *Times* £1,500, and were reprinted in a few hours, without permission, in the evening papers. Some ingenious projectors have calculated that it would be practicable to produce a newspaper in London by seven o'clock in the morning the news in which should be entirely obtained from the morning papers. Such a newspaper would contain the best of material, and, being at no expense for news, could be sold at a profit for a half-penny.

If the practice of copying news had been confined within reasonable limits, it is not probable that the *Times* would have thought it worth while to resort to the law for protection. The difficulties in the way of defending copyright are very great, and the trouble of registration is itself considerable. But certain journals went beyond all the bounds of decency, habitually appropriating large quantities of matter, both articles and news, which the *Times* had obtained at great expense, neglecting in many cases to give any credit for it, and refusing to be deterred from their course by friendly remonstrance. Under these circumstances, the proprietors of the *Times* decided to test and ascertain their legal rights, and prepared themselves by taking assignments of certain articles, among them one by Rudyard Kipling, and otherwise duly perfecting their copyright in the edition of a certain morning.

These preparations, which the plunderers of the *Times* thereafter indignantly characterized as "baiting a trap for them," were not futile. The *St. James's Gazette*, a journal that appears about noon, before the second edition of the *Times* is issued, had long made free with the matter procured by the *Times*, but on this occasion rather outdid itself. It copied a considerable part of Mr. Kipling's letter, and proceeded to add insult to injury by sneering at the *Times* for paying a price for such matter, at the thought of which "the imagination of the ordinary literary person shrinks appalled." We recollect a story of an English tourist in Naples, in the good old days of King Bomba, who was compelled by the thieving habits of the Neapolitans to supply himself with cotton instead of cambric handkerchiefs, and who had one of his cheap substitutes thrown back to him by an outraged pickpocket, in whose expressions of angry contempt the sympathizing bystanders joined. It seems to have been reserved for the *St. James's Gazette* and its supporters to complain that the victim of its rapacity had paid an extravagant price for the article which, with full knowledge of its quality, it had pilfered.

The same copy of the *Gazette* contained also twenty-two different paragraphs copied from the *Times* of that morning. In seven of these paragraphs the source from which they were obtained was acknowledged; in the other fifteen the *Times* was not referred to. In many of these paragraphs the *Times* had no copyright, but it proved copyright in three of them. Two of these were despatches from its foreign correspondents, and each had at the end the words "Our correspondent." These words were omitted by the *Gazette*, as was the word "Dalziel" at the foot of the third paragraph. Acts of like character, it was afterwards shown, had been daily practised by the *Gazette* since 1880. The solicitors of the *Times* having obtained an injunction restraining the publication of the Kipling letter, the editor of the *Gazette* expressed regret for his action as to that article, but refused to withdraw the others.

Upon the trial the defendants pleaded that it was an established custom for newspapers to copy from one another without asking permission, and that consent may be assumed if four conditions are observed, viz.: (1.) That the source of the quotation be duly acknowledged. (2.) That the paper copying and that from which the matter is copied be not direct competitors. (3.) That the paper from which matter has been copied has copied matter from the other. (4.) That it has copied matter from other papers. As to the first of these conditions the Court declared that while it might sometimes be for the advantage of a paper as an advertisement to have extracts made from it, which, however, could not have been, in its opinion, the case with the *Times* and the *Gazette*, it is impossible that any such advantage should result when the source of the quotation is unmentioned. The second condition did not apply, because the *Gazette* appeared before the *Times's* second edition, and moreover the *Times* had a tri-weekly as well as a weekly edition, so that the *Gazette* was clearly a competitor. As to the third condition, the attempt of the defendants to establish a tacit reciprocity treaty proved, as the Court said, a ridiculous failure. They succeeded in showing that, during the twelve years preceding, the *Times* had twice, once in 1888 and once in 1890, quoted from the *Gazette*, giving the source of its quotation, while the *Gazette*

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had begun its systematic copying from the *Times* in 1880, and continued it on a large scale and without interruption ever since. Finally, in support of the fourth condition, the defendants adduced sixteen instances where the *Times* had copied from other papers, and the *Times* showed that in thirteen of these they had copied by request or in some equally justifiable manner, and the Court held the other instances to be too trivial to deserve consideration.

The case of the defendants thus altogether broke down, but the Court added emphatically that with respect to copyrighted articles the plea of a custom of copying them could no more be supported than the highwayman's plea of the custom of Hounslow Heath. There appears to have been some uncertainty whether this was the law or not, but this uncertainty is now dispelled, and if newspapers choose to go to the trouble of copyrighting matter the procuring of which has cost them money or required skill or enterprise, they may secure the result of their labors. Of course the cry was raised that there should be no monopoly of news, just as we heard in this country that there ought to be no property in ideas, but this fallacy was exploded by the Court in a summary manner. It pointed out that the law recognized the right of criticism or discussion, and such quotation as was necessary thereto, which was "the fair exercise of a mental operation discussing the character of an original work." But what the *St. James's Gazette* had recourse to was "not a mental operation involving thought and labor and producing some original result, but a mechanical operation with scissors and paste, without the slightest pretension to an original result of any kind; a mere reproduction of 'copy' without trouble or cost. . . . It is said that there is no copyright in news, but there is or may be in the particular form of language or modes of expression by which information is conveyed, and not the less so because the information may be with respect to the current events of the day."

THE NEW HOUSE OF COMMONS.

THE dissolution of the present Parliament, the twenty-fourth of the United Kingdom and the twelfth of Victoria's reign, will take place six years, almost to the day, after Mr. Gladstone, by dismissing its predecessor, appealed in vain to the country to reverse the condemnation which the Commons had passed upon his Irish policy. Although the second reading of his Home-Rule Bill was negatived by a majority of only thirty, the British and Irish Home-Rulers found themselves in the new Parliament in a minority of 120. So closely under English law and practice do the elections follow upon dissolution, that it is now perhaps almost superfluous to speculate as to the outcome of the struggle about to begin. The result of the general election of 1885, the first held under the present franchise and with the existing distribution of seats, showed that the united Liberal party could command, even under the not specially favorable circumstances which then confronted it, a plurality over the Conservatives of about 82. If to this plurality be added the 86 votes of the Irish Nationalists, the anti-Tory majority was 168. On the other hand, after the Liberal split, the general election of 1886 returned 314 Conservatives and 81 Liberal Unionists, or a total of 395 supporters of the present Administration, as against 189 Gladstonian Liberals and 86 Irish Nationalists.

The issue of the impending campaign will depend principally upon the number of votes the Gladstonian candidates can get from the Liberals of 1885 who, in 1886, voted for Unionists or did not vote at all. There can be no question that very many of the dissentient Liberals of 1886 have since returned to full communion with their old party. In whatever way the bye-elections, in the 133 constituencies in which bye-elections have been held since September, 1886, be looked at, they indicate that the Salisbury Government will be a minority in the new House. Whether that minority will be very large or comparatively small does not so certainly appear. In 1885 these 133 constituencies returned 59 Conservatives, 53 Liberals, and 21 Irish Nationalists. Since the bye-elections there sit for these same places 56 Conservatives, 6 Liberal Unionists, 50 Gladstonian Liberals, and 21 Irish Nationalists, including both Parnellites and anti-Parnellites. There are thus three more Conservatives and Liberal Unionists combined than there were Conservatives alone in 1885. But these 133 seats are almost precisely one-fifth of the 670 in the entire House. A similar proportion of Unionist gains in the other four-fifths of the constituencies would give the Unionists in the new Parliament but fifteen more seats than were secured by the Tories in 1885, and would reduce the combined home-rule and Liberal majority then returned by but 30, or to 138.

Compared with the result of the general election of 1886, there has been at the bye-elections a net home-rule gain of twenty-one seats. A similar proportion of change in the remaining constituencies would net a loss of 105 seats to the Salisbury Government, and would turn its majority of 120 in 1886 into a minority of 90. Ignoring the number of seats won or lost at the bye-elections, and considering only the actual vote polled, it appears that in the sixty-four British constituencies contested both in 1886 and at subsequent bye-elections the Unionist vote has increased only 7 per cent., as against a Gladstonian gain of 26 per cent. In these constituencies the average Gladstonian net gain was 547 to each seat. As in 1886 the Unionists carried no fewer than 112 seats by majorities of less than 547 each, this method of comparison indicates a Liberal gain of 112 members and a home-rule majority of 104.

The net result of these three methods of comparison seems to foreshadow that majority of 100 or upwards which Mr. Gladstone is said to expect. If, however, the comparison be made between the votes polled in 1885 and at the bye-elections, the results will not be so favorable. In the eighty-one British constituencies contested both in 1885 and at the bye-elections since 1886, there has been an average net Unionist gain of 326 votes to a seat. In 1885 the Liberals carried fifty-six seats by majorities of less than 326. If these seats be gained by the Unionists at the coming election, the Gladstonian majority will be only 56. Moreover, if the constituencies which in 1885 returned Liberals and those which returned Conservatives be separately compared, a still smaller majority in the coming Parliament is indicated. The forty-three constituencies which in 1885 gave Liberal majorities, and have since had bye-elections, show an average net Liberal loss of 778 votes to a seat. In 1885, 114 Liberal members received majorities less than 778. On the other hand, in the contested constituencies which were Conservative in 1885, the bye-elections show an average net Gladstonian gain of 185, and 43 Conservatives were returned in 1885 by pluralities of less than 185. This method of comparison forecasts a net Gladstonian loss as compared with 1885 of 71 seats, which would give the Gladstonians a majority of but 26.

In all the above calculations it has been assumed that, as the number of seats held by Irish Nationalists has, since 1885, remained unchanged, there will be no losses among them at the coming election. This the split in the Irish ranks makes a very improbable supposition. It is true that it so happens that there are not more than ten or eleven Nationalist seats in all Ireland which can possibly be endangered by a double candidature. In all the other constituencies now represented by Nationalists, the home-rule vote is more than twice as great as that of the Unionists. It is, however, probable that five or six seats may be lost by these divisions, in which case it is possible that in the new House the supporters of the present Government will number from 325 to 330 out of the total membership of 670. In that event the balance of power may be held by a handful of Parnellites.

THE GREEK ELECTIONS.

ATHENS, May 28, 1892.

THE politics of Greece lie very far out of the American horizon, yet they are near akin to ours in spirit and tendencies, and it may be worth your while, even in the thick of questions of candidates and tariff and silver bills, to listen to a brief résumé of the results of the elections which took place on the 15th of May. I happened to be in Constantinople about that date, and I inquired with eagerness from our intelligent and obliging Greek porter for the Athenian newspapers. "We don't get the papers from Athens," he said—"the Govern-

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ment forbids them; but some of our friends have got the news by telegraph, and I hope you will be glad to hear that Tricoupis is successful." "Good news," I said. "Yes," he replied, in Greek which was almost classic and was clear enough even to my unpractised ear, "good news, and not for Greece only, but a common benefit to all the Hellenic race; for Mr. Tricoupis is the one man of dignity and worth on whom we can all depend." I give the exact words of this young Greek because they contain several significant points in a nutshell. The Greeks of the Levant generally have been keenly interested in the late contest. The *Neologos* of Constantinople had nearly two sides filled with news of the election, and a most sensible leader on the lesson and consequences of it. The meaning of this is, that the Greek peoples who live under Turkish misrule do not forget Hellas; they still look towards Athens. When they make an occasional pilgrimage thither, it seems to them an embodiment of that law and civilization and liberty which they do not possess; and they rejoice heartily and with an enlightened sympathy when that small kingdom which is the starting point, if not the goal, of their aspirations, has been safely tided through a crisis of its existence. If they are no longer so sanguine as to defer the christening of their children for the time when the ceremony may take place in the mosque of St. Sophia, they still dream of a magnificent Hellenic State in which Constantinople shall recall the glories of the Byzantine Empire.

The crisis which the elections seem to have terminated was really most acute and fraught with the gravest possibilities. In March, when I reached Athens, the paper currency was at a discount of 50 per cent. This discount measured the recent results of Mr. Delyannis's financial management. He had contrived to reach the quarterly payments without providing for the expenses of the Government. While he remained Minister of Finance, the banks refused to accommodate the Government with a loan. The situation was so grave that the King felt obliged to demand the resignation of Mr. Delyannis, which, with that assurance which has never failed him, he refused to tender, alleging that he was still supported by a majority of the House. The manner of this refusal, as well as the previous conduct of the Prime Minister, was offensive to his Majesty, and was purposely offensive. When the King, finally, exercising an unusual but legitimate prerogative, felt obliged to dismiss his Minister, there were a few hours at Athens when the germs of a revolution seemed to be breaking out. It is generally believed that Delyannis had tried to tamper with the army, and was interrupted in his plans by the active initiative of the King. The new Ministry which succeeded was purely temporary and intermediate; the Chamber of Deputies was soon dissolved, and the election was set for the 15th of May.

In discussing the situation before the election, some shrewd authorities maintained that the King had made a mistake—that he had been over-anxious and hasty; that he ought to have given Mr. Delyannis more rope. Mr. Delyannis had already shown that he had many lives. His fiasco when, six years before, he nearly drew the country into a Turkish war, and was obliged to resign in face of the blockade and of a Turkish army, as the only solution of the emergency, would have been the death of most politicians in most countries. But this adroit demagogue had the most extraordinary knack of lighting on his feet, and it was felt that the action of the King might help him to retrieve his situation. As a matter of fact, in the canvass of the country which preceded the elections, Mr. Delyannis took the attitude of a defender of the rights of the people against the encroachments of the Crown. His "watchword" was Greece for the Greeks, and he posed as the true republican who scorned foreign influence and opinion, and was not, like Mr. Tricoupis, "a creature of Lord Salisbury." He even went so far as to hint in his speeches that "the will of the people must not be thwarted if it demanded a republic." In short, he showed himself in a small way the Boulanger of the crisis—a most adroit and ingenious mischief-maker, expert in the coining of phrases and charges which catch the ear of a prejudiced and ignorant populace. It may be mentioned, parenthetically, that in January last he had succeeded in passing a regulation which required all foreigners entering the country to present passports and to have them viséed—a regulation so Turkish (or Russian), so contrary to the present practice of all civilized nations, that certain Englishmen, on reaching Corfu, turned their backs on the country in disgust, and went direct to Cairo without visiting Greece. I am glad to say that the regulation almost immediately fell into abeyance, and no one has heard of it lately.

So skilful was Mr. Delyannis in these arts of the demagogue, and so great was his personal popularity in the Peloponnesus, that one month before the election even the best informed in politics did not venture to predict his defeat; and all sensible, sober minds in Greece as well as in the Levant felt the greatest uneasiness and anxiety as to the issue. Yet the two questions involved were the solvency of the Government and, to a certain extent, the stability of the monarchy. I was surprised to observe this uncertainty as to the decision of questions so fundamental. It seemed to me that it indicated the lack of any considerable body of voters in the country whose uprightness and judgment could be trusted in an emergency. I am not now recording an opinion of my own; I am only stating the natural inference from the alarms and apprehensions of the most solid men in Athens.

I was much interested in the Greek method of conducting a "campaign." The newspapers, excepting perhaps the *Astu*, the more immediate organ of Mr. Tricoupis, allow themselves all lengths in vituperation and abuse; they have a splendid Aristophanic instrument in the modern language, and there is no limit to the invention of effective epithets. They outdo in this respect anything that we are accustomed to in the United States. On the other hand, I was surprised and pleased to see that, on the Tricoupis side at least, the speeches of candidates were brief, temperate, and dignified to a remarkable degree. They confined themselves generally to a simple statement of the importance of the interests at stake and of their programme for the future. There were no appeals to passion, no assaults or innuendoes on the reputation of their opponents. A half a column, or a column at most, sufficed to report them fully. Such speeches, addressed to such an assemblage as I saw at Nauplia, for instance, composed largely of peasants in their own picturesque costume, certainly do great credit to the methods of the canvass. I can hardly believe that they are typical. However, the newspapers are the real battle-field of the elections, and every one, I am told, reads the newspapers; at any rate, the nine-tenths of the population who can read impart the news to the one-tenth who cannot.

I do not know how much weight the "demonstrations" (διαδηλώσεις) have in the actual results; but it is quite certain that nothing would induce the people at large to dispense with them. Night after night they occupy the minds and bodies of certain hardy and sleepless "workers," for nearly a month before election day. In Athens, during that period, they make life a burden to all lovers of peace and quietness. Every night a fresh procession, either small or large, makes its appearance, not differing much from our displays, except that it is accompanied by a noisy crowd shouting "zeto" and "kato" for friends and foes. The torches and carriages vanish before midnight, perhaps; but a large part of the assemblage continues to huzza and to howl until two or three o'clock in the morning. The exercise is responded to antiphonally by a rival gathering of the opposite party, until the lungs of one or the other side are exhausted. I have before me a cutting from the *Acropolis*, which describes several such "demonstrations" as going on in the squares of Athens on the same night. The reporter adds, with naïve pride, that a single patrol "kept the peace," if that expression may be used, between the contending factions, and that all had retired from the field without bloodshed by three o'clock in the morning.

The fact is, that to the uneventful life of the provinces the parade and preliminaries of the elections are a great treat and excitement which they could not lightly part with. There are other practices in vogue, however, which are much more questionable than the childishness of excessive "demonstrations." It used to be the custom in the rural districts for each candidate to keep open house during the canvass, and to entertain all comers on a scale which resembled the good cheer of the palace of Odysseus. This custom is vanishing, but, on the other hand, the indifferent voter is always sure at this season of an unlimited supply of *retsinato* and of creature comforts. If he is in debt, he may be accommodated with a loan; if he must travel a long distance to his voting district, his expenses are paid. Moreover, there are certain districts, such as those of Spetsa, and Hydhra, and Psara in Eubœa—"rotten boroughs," they may be called—which were granted by the National Assembly of 1843, as a reward for heroic services, the privilege of sending a Representative, although their population is much smaller than the required number of 10,000 souls. These districts are a natural source of corruption; for here money can be spent to obvious advantage, and there is reasonable hope of buying up a majority. In general, the indifferent voter may sell his vote as high as or even higher than with us. A great deal of money is spent by each candidate. Few spend less than a thousand dollars; I heard credibly of one who expected to spend eight thousand.

Moreover, the mode of voting at the polls gives large opportunity for personal influence and inspection—for seeing to it that these extravagant sums are not wasted. At the polling-place each candidate has his name and emblem (that of Mr. Tricoupis was the olive) painted on a separate urn; from the upper part of this projects a funnel into which the voter thrusts his arm when depositing a small leaden bullet or ballot. The urn or box is partitioned into two compartments, on one of which is painted in white, "Yes," on the other, in black, "No." Behind each urn a representative of the candidate is permitted to

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stand, to call out the name of his candidate, and even to solicit votes for him. The intention of the law is that the voter shall give a secret ballot; but it is quite possible to watch from behind the twist of his arm as his wrist turns to right or left, towards the white or black compartment. Formerly the voters made use of written tickets or ballots. The present arrangement was contrived to protect the rights of the illiterate voter; but it is a case of "overprotection," and plainly lends itself to the purposes of fraud and undue influence—I might say, to intimidation. For certainly, in the remoter regions of Cephalonia and Thessaly and the Peloponnesus, the churches in which the voting takes place (election day is always fixed for Sunday) do not present that peaceful and even funereal aspect which the sanctity of the place demands, and with which the Australian system familiarizes us at home. Notwithstanding the presence of soldiers to keep the peace, serious affrays and "accidents" are frequent: four such cases occurred in Athens on the 15th, and the list of assaults and wounds in the provinces is proportionately larger. Such a record is not worthy of the civilization which, in various directions, the kingdom may justly claim. Moreover, the extraordinary provision which requires the voter to cast a ballot, or ball, in *all* the boxes—that is to say, not only in favor of the candidates whom he chooses, but also against those whom he rejects—lends itself to tricksy combinations and intrigues. It is at the same time exceedingly clumsy. On the present occasion, for instance, the voter in Attica was obliged to distribute thirty balls in as many urns. It would certainly be an education in honest politics if the nation could see its way to adopting some modification of the Australian ballot.

The result of the polling on May 15 gave 170 Representatives for Mr. Tricoupis and 37 for all others, about half of whom were claimed for Mr. Delyannis. It is quite plain that this extraordinary and unexpected majority was not the result of systematic bribery and corruption. It was, on the contrary, a declaration of confidence in the statesman who has so often before served his country with honor and a practical knowledge of business affairs; the statesman whom every traveller must remember for the railways he has encouraged and the admirable highways he has had built in the Peloponnesus and elsewhere. It was perhaps still more a spontaneous and hearty approval by the people of the recent unusual action of the King. It meant that the people not only stick by the present Constitution, and have no fancy for a republic, but that they also adhere to the King personally, as well they may—to that wise and upright and conscientious gentleman who for thirty years has proved himself without stain or reproach, and has watched faithfully over the interests of his people. If the crown had not been involved, undoubtedly the Tricoupis majority would have been smaller and less decided. As it is, the result is a satisfactory testimony to the general good sense of the voters of Greece; it makes one feel easier as to the future and the stability of the kingdom. It may be concluded that the Greeks are resolved as a nation to pay their debts, and to maintain the Constitution as it stands; it may be concluded that they are even proof against the arts of the demagogue when the vital interests of the State are concerned. They have at present condemned and dismissed their Boulanger; the newspapers say that he is politically dead. In any other country he might safely be so regarded, but he was a discredited man six years ago, and even now he has been reëlected to the "Boulë," or House of Representatives.

The immense majority for Mr. Tricoupis does not mean so much as it would with us or in England. Such a following is in Greece subject to rapid fluctuations and changes. When Mr. Tricoupis comes to distribute the appointments, dissatisfaction will at once arise—there are not places enough "to go round"—and disappointment will lead to secessions and to cabals. Purely personal interests are the strongest factor in Greek politics. The integrity, the experience, and the financial skill of Mr. Tricoupis will not necessarily secure long life to his administration. Yet it is to the credit of the Greeks that when they are among the rocks, they know their pilot and have the good sense to put him in command of the ship. The friends of Greece could wish they had more such pilots as Mr. Tricoupis. At present they do not make their appearance.

The policy which Mr. Tricoupis announced in his speeches was briefly this: The development of the resources and industries of Greece, economy in expenditures, the improvement of finance, and, finally, the declaration that it behooves the Government of Hellas to interest itself in the welfare of all Greeks wheresoever they may be. This latter sentiment has been criticised rather scornfully by most of the European press. The London *Times*, with that graceful opportuneness which has often so endeared the English nation to foreigners, remarks that the population of Greece could be taken out of a corner of London; and that people must pay their debts before they can expect to be heard in the councils of the nations. Yet it is not easy to see how Mr. Tricoupis or any Greek statesman could say less with reference to the six millions of Greeks who are mostly under Turkish rule. Is it possible that the kingdom of Hellas can really forget them? They certainly do not forget the kingdom of Hellas, either in their lives or in their wills. They are truer patriots, perhaps, than their brethren who have a country and a civilized government. They are not exactly "slaves," though they like to call themselves so; but they have no country, no share in any government of their own. The Greeks are above all clannish—they are too clannish, those who have studied them in the Levant complain. Their aims embrace only the Greek-speaking peoples; there is nothing cosmopolitan in their ambitions. But a national existence comes first and cosmopolitanism comes later. Certainly the Greeks of the Levant deserve a better fate than the Scylla of Turkish or the Charybdis of Russian rule; and who can blame the Greek-speaking peoples for looking to one another across the Ægean Sea? The bond of sympathy and sentiment is strong and close between them, even if it is not a bond of blood. They have no steadfast and disinterested friends among the European Powers; they know that the "balance of power," not of justice, is that which weighs their fortunes.

If they welcome Americans and defer to their opinion, it is because they know that the American has the privilege of being disinterested. There is, therefore, something pathetic in the situation of the youthful kingdom of Hellas, with her burden of great traditions, her great ambitions, and her comparatively small resources. It recalls the words of the helpless seer in Herodotus: "The sharpest pang in the lot of humanity is to have many thoughts, and to control nothing." Yet the Attic salt has not lost its savor. The last election was a moral victory; and if one wishes to measure material progress, let him compare Athens with Constantinople—let him look at the neat, and tidy, and charming capital of Hellas, with its municipal order and conveniences, with its beautiful public buildings—let him compare these with the insecurity and the heterogeneous slovenliness of Constantinople, where each nationality, in despair, has been driven to take care of its post-office and its citizens—and let him remember that from such precedents and from a hamlet of a few hundred houses Athens has reached its present growth in half a century's time. Such progress is at once a sample of what has been achieved, and a measure of what may be expected from Hellas in the future.

M. C. D.

HENRI BEYLE AND HIS SISTER.

PARIS, June 9, 1892.

'LETTRES INTIMES' of Stendhal: I saw this title-page a few days ago in the shop-window of a bookseller. The work had not been announced. I said to myself at first: Somebody has taken the scrapings of Stendhal, what could not be used in the two volumes lately published on him, and tried to catch the public by a mere name. Still, I bought the volume and read it, and was agreeably surprised to find it very interesting.

There is no introduction—only a few lines from the editor. "What we offer to the public," says he, "is the correspondence of Henri Beyle with his sister Pauline, with the person, consequently, or one of the persons, whom he had the least possible interest in deceiving; and people will see, we believe, a little of the naked soul of the personage through this easy, fraternal correspondence; they will discover something of the true philosophy of the writer in his undressed thought." The correspondence begins in Messidor, An X., which means 1801; and I may remark that the terms of the Republican calendar are almost always retained. Beyle asks his sister to write to him regularly once a week, and promises to do the same; he will be at a distance her guide and educator.

You are struck at once by the tone of the correspondence and by the high degree of culture which it supposes in the two correspondents. "I will send you a little book of 213 pages, 18mo, which will give you more ideas than all the libraries in the world. It is the 'Logic' of our compatriot, the Abbé de Condillac. It is useless to speak of this outside of the family—people would think me mad to send you such a book, and they would think you very presumptuous to attempt to read it; but, my dear Pauline, let the fools talk and let us go our own way." He proceeds to explain the beauties of this 'Logic.' If Pauline masters the great art of reasoning, there will be nothing to embarrass her—the most complicated cases of grammar, the most difficult calculations of algebra, will become play for her. This passage interests us as showing the influence which Condillac, who founded his philosophy wholly on sensation, had on the mind of Beyle. Was he not essentially a sensualist, in the highest as well as in the lowest meaning of the word?

Are there many brothers who would write to their younger sister such lines as these (Floréal, An XI.)?

"You cannot imagine how consoling in affliction the study of letters is, and when we reach a certain point it is a pleasure which always increases. When you have felt the beauties

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of Corneille, of Racine, of Tasso, etc., you will not be able to detach yourself from them; and, if you are willing to help me, you will feel them very sensibly six months hence. . . . Here are some Italian verses by Vittorio Alfieri, one of the greatest poets of the eighteenth century; they give me much pleasure."

He recommends her to read La Fontaine, "if you understand him"; so he did not think it so easy to understand La Fontaine, and surely there is more in the fables than children can imagine. Occasionally he philosophizes a little:

"If you were blind, you would have no idea of red, green, yellow, of color in general; you would have no idea of the moon, you would think of the sun only as of a warm body. If you did not smell, you would not distinguish the smell of a rose from that of a pink. If you did not hear, you would not distinguish a *mi* from a *fa*. Therefore, all our ideas come from our senses. Think much of this great truth."

This is Condillac in its purest form: "Nihil est in intellectu quod non fuerit prius in sensu." The whole literary work of Beyle is pervaded by this doctrine; it made him an impressionist, a realist, before these terms were used as they are now. He talks to his sister of Vauvenargues, of Montesquieu; but he always advises her to keep her knowledge to herself. "For the *provinciaux*, whatever is reasoning is philosophy, and whatever is philosophy is odious."

"I lodge," he writes at another time, "in the sixth story, but just opposite the colonnade of the Louvre. Every evening I see successively the sun, the moon, and the stars disappear behind the galleries which have seen the *grand siècle*. I fancy seeing the forms of the great Condé, of Louis XIV., of Corneille, of Pascal, concealed behind these great columns." It is clear that sometimes when he writes to Pauline, he writes also for himself, for he recommends her to preserve his letters. Take, for example, the letter of 9th Pluviose, An XI.: "I am going to speak to you," he says, "of the moral principles of literature, of what constitutes the beautiful, and of what has induced great men to produce the beautiful." The letter is really a sort of essay. Beyle tries his own strength; he amuses himself; he knows that his sister "will not understand this at the first reading." He constantly refers to his poverty, he complains too much of his father, and accuses him of avarice. He has small debts; he owes money even to his porter, and he has pawned his watch. "I have been nowhere for a fortnight, for want of twelve sous in my pocket; I neglect M. Daru [his patron], Gen. Michaud, Mlle. Duchesnois [the actress]." He adds, however, immediately: "I have never laughed so much. Three years ago I should have been in despair; I have become reasonable." Then follows a little essay on tedium and the various ways to avoid it.

Some of these essays are tiresome, others are unbecoming, if you reflect that they proceed from a brother writing to a sister younger than himself. He tells Pauline, for instance, not to marry any man with whom she is in love. "All love comes to an end, however violent it may have been, and the more violent ends the quickest. After love comes disgust; nothing more natural." He asks his sister such questions as, "Es-tu amoureuse?" He makes her the confidante of his own love affairs. "All these little girls here bore me; their tenderness is mere grimace and studied grace—nothing frank, natural, energetic." In 1807 he writes from Berlin:

"I have conquered love with infinite pain, and, since I must say so, with tears. I was so agitated at seven o'clock in the evening, the moment when the question of my departure was to be settled, that I ran about the streets of Brunswick like a madman. I passed before the windows of a little girl for whom I have a passion. I felt torn. However, honor was stronger than love; I went to the Maréchal and told him that I wanted to go."

There is a certain Mina whom he calls Minette. "I have no more taste for Minette, the fair and charming Minette, this soul of the north whose like I have never seen in France or in Italy." His sister was then twenty-two years old; he constantly advises her to marry a good man, inferior to her in intellect, whom she could easily rein and rule; a rich man if possible. The two great qualities of a husband are "(1) not a tyrant; (2) rich." Beyle has perhaps an excuse in the character of his sister; she seems to have been a very masculine person, too masculine even for him. We infer this from a letter written from Germany (November 25, 1807): "What makes follies so fatal to great souls lodged in feminine bodies is the fact that people always attribute them to a contemptible cause. The most intellectual young man, and most in love, would not marry you if twenty or thirty ladies assured him that they had seen you running in the streets in the evening in men's clothes." He supposes that his sister answers: "But I am too much bored; I cannot continue this monotonous life." "Yes, but reflect that when there is a scandal, you can no longer find a husband." He always advises her to be first married. "A woman must first be married; that is what people demand of her. After that she does as she pleases." His sister was married in 1808. "How did you bear it? were you firm or weak? . . . Adieu, dear madame. Study yourself in this great circumstance. Marriage is like the stage of a theatre which you ascend from the pit. It seems large so long as you do not see the decorations behind."

You will find all of Beyle in this curious correspondence—his cynicism, his materialism, his mania for analyzing passions, his dogmatism. He is never tired of abusing Frenchmen for their vanity, but he is himself the vainest of all men—perpetually speaking of himself, of his smallest sensations, of his likes and dislikes; and with all this, which is not done to create any sympathy for him, an extraordinary clearness and terseness, a total absence of prejudice, an intense love of truth in all things, sometimes a curious sentimentality which contrasts greatly with the rest of his character—when he speaks, for instance, of music, of the emotions which it excites in him, when he speaks of Italy, its scenery, its monuments. Here and there, with much sobriety, there is an heroic note, as when he speaks of the battles of Napoleon, of his friends of the *grande armée;* but this heroic note has nothing of what we now call chauvinism: it is very simple and all the more powerful.

The most characteristic trait of the correspondence is the curiosity of Beyle about mankind and human nature. The world is to him a most delightful spectacle. He has a passion, a sincere passion, for society, he never wearies of making minute observations about men and women. The knowledge of the human heart, with all its intricacies and obscurities, is to him the supreme knowledge; his psychology is entirely founded on the doctrine of Condillac, on sensation.

"The finest secret I can give to you," he writes to his sister, "is to study the heart and the head of man. You know the heart well, your ardent soul has explained it to you; the head remains to be studied. I will send to you the 'Ideology' of Tracy. . . . If we are fortunate enough to live to be old, we will live in the same house and we will spend the evening of our life agreeably, in making a list of the passions, vanities, ambitions, hatreds, etc., and of the states of passion, hope, enjoyment, despair. Observe the habits of the souls of such men as D., who lies at every word you say to him, and write near every name the feature which you have seen developed in him."

Beyle did what he recommended to his sister to do: he studied the *comédie humaine* systematically—too systematically, for it is impossible not to see in the 'Chartreuse de Parme' and in 'Rouge et Noir,' his two masterpieces; a clear trace of the doctrines which he parades incessantly in his correspondence. Every human character is explained to him by what we now call, after him, a master passion (*passion maîtresse*). Every state of the heart and of the mind is the result of a sort of crystallization of sensations or of thoughts round a certain nucleus.

This correspondence, on the whole, though it is at times quite unpleasant, will interest all who consider Beyle one of the most original writers of our time. It is a pity that the editor does not give you the slightest detail about Beyle's sister, about her life, her marriage. We cannot, from the correspondence itself, reconstruct her life. The correspondence ends in 1814, with the French Empire. It may be that there will be another volume. So far we have only the letters written by Beyle from Germany, and during a short period from Paris, in 1810; from Russia in 1812, from Savoy and Italy in 1814.

Notes.

Henry Stevens & Son, 39 Great Russell Street, London, promise for next month Henry Harrisse's 'Discovery of North America,' "a critical, documentary, and historic investigation, with an essay on the early cartography of the New World," etc. This important work by the foremost investigator in the field will make a quarto volume of 800 pages, with 23 plates and many illustrations in the text, and will be issued to subscribers (up to July 11 for American orders) in three styles, ranging in price from £5 to £12 16s. Only 360 copies are to be printed.

Only 500 copies will be printed of Mr. Austin Dobson's edition of Fielding's 'Journal of a Voyage to Lisbon,' and 300 of George C. Napier's new work on 'The Homes and Haunts of Tennyson,' profusely illustrated, both of which are announced by Macmillan & Co.

The "Stanford" 'Dictionary of Anglicized Words and Phrases,' edited by Dr. C. A. M. Fennell, shortly to be issued by the Cambridge (Eng.) University Press, deals with 270 quotations, 1,800 phrases, and 10,880 words, and gives some 40,000 illustrative quotations.

G. P. Putnam's Sons have in press several illustrated volumes: 'A French Ambassador at the Court of Charles II.—Le Comte de Cominges,' edited from his unpublished correspondence by J. J. Jusserand; 'Japan in Art and History,' by Félix Régamey; and 'The Fairy Tales of India,' collected and edited by Joseph Jacobs. The same firm will publish 'The New Exodus,' Harold Frederic's letters to the New York *Times* on the condition of the Jews in Russia; 'Lyrics and Ballads of Heine, Goethe, and other German Poets,' translated by Frances Hellman; 'Temperament, Disease, and Health,' by Com. F. E. Chadwick; and 'Hygienic Measures in relation to Infectious Diseases,' by George H. F. Nuttall, M.D.

Harper & Brothers will publish next week a

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new volume of poems by Will Carleton, entitled 'City Festivals'; 'Mrs. Keats Bradford,' a novel by Maria Louise Pool; and 'The Magic Ink, and Other Stories,' by William Black.

D. Appleton & Co. will supply the American market with W. H. Hudson's remarkable work, 'The Naturalist in La Plata'; and have nearly ready also the following: 'Controverted Questions,' by Prof. Huxley; 'The Hope of the Gospel,' by George MacDonald; and 'Western Canada,' by Ernest Ingersoll, uniform with Prof. C. G. D. Roberts's guide-book, 'Eastern Canada.'

Ginn & Co. have in preparation a students' edition of Bulfinch's 'Age of Fable,' wrought over by Prof. Charles Mills Gayley of the University of California, with notes, cuts, and maps.

'Paddles and Politics Down the Danube' will be the title of Mr. Poultney Bigelow's collected articles relating his canoe voyage on that river. It will be issued by Charles L. Webster & Co.

The papers on Carlyle published by Sir Charles Gavan Duffy in the *Contemporary Review* have been collected into a volume called 'Conversations with Carlyle' (Scribners). They give, on the whole, a pleasant impression of the irascible Scot, as seen from the side of an intimate friendship of forty years' duration, and go no small way towards counteracting the idea, left by many of the later publications about him, that he was always domineering and unsympathetic. Moreover, they preserve a large number of his piquant and forcible opinions on writers and books, in which, if his inherent limitations are revealed, a good deal more than his ordinary kindliness is shown, with much of his best insight. Sir Charles touches lightly upon the question of Mrs. Carlyle's happiness in her marriage. He evidently thinks husband and wife to have been sufficiently compatible, but promises hereafter to recur to "the chief misapprehensions current in later years about the Chelsea household."

Landor's 'Imaginary Conversations,' as edited by Charles G. Crump (London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: Macmillan), is concluded with the newly issued sixth volume, of which the frontispiece is a view of the Villa Gherardesca at Fiesole. The opening conversation, between Landor, English Visitor, and Florentine, is one of the most incoherent of the whole, and has been most (and most carelessly) tinkered, so that the variants require an appendix in addition to the footnotes. It is also one which would naturally suggest an index of opinion and historical anecdote for the entire series, but this has not been undertaken. A bibliography of the Conversations, by Lucy Crump, follows the appendix, giving the dates of first appearance, which are usually but not uniformly, in this edition, supplied in connection with the respective conversations themselves.

Macmillan & Co. have brought out a second edition of the translation of Nägeli & Schwendener on the Microscope. The original treatise has an established place as perhaps the fullest exposition of the theory of the microscope as an optical instrument, from the physical and mathematical standpoint. The translation was made under the supervision of Messrs. Crisp and Mayall of the Royal Microscopical Society of London. A fire in the printers' establishment destroyed the "copy" of the last part of the work, and it is to be regretted that this has not yet been supplied, though the division of the subjects gives independent and substantial value to the work without the final chapters.

The Rev. J. C. Atkinson's 'Play Hours and Half-Holidays' (Macmillan) was first published some thirty years ago, and is the story of two English lads at school. Little is said of their indoor life, but much stress is laid on the discoveries made by the boys concerning the character and habits of birds and animals, the art of fishing and the making of artificial flies, the collection and preservation of butterflies, the location and nature of plants and minerals. In short, the book is an account of many of the excursions into different fields of natural science which boys generally make sooner or later. It is all told in a way that can hardly fail to create a desire to follow in the path the two lads travelled. If the style is somewhat stilted at times, this defect is compensated by the author's genuine sympathy with boys and their ways.

One of the founders of the Grolier Club, Mr. William Loring Andrews, has recently printed a little book on 'Roger Payne and His Art,' a short account of Payne's life and work as a binder (New York: The De Vinne Press). Among the illustrations are a reproduction of the etching which represents Payne in his workshop and seven books bound by him—these last being admirably reproduced by Mr. Bierstadt's artotype process with all the delicacy of colored leather and all the brilliancy of gilding. Mr. Andrews is more moderate in his claims than are most of those who write about Payne. The fact is, and these excellent plates are as good evidence as any one could wish, that Payne, although an honest and a loving workman, is wholly unworthy of comparison with the great binders of France and Italy—not merely with the anonymous artist who worked for Henry II. of France, or with the so-called Gascon, but even with secondary Frenchmen like Derome. Still, he is the best binder England produced until Mr. Cobden-Sanderson began to decorate leather covers with exquisitely fresh designs.

Among the multitude of books in the Dutch language itself and in other European tongues about Holland, there is none treating directly, and in the spirit of modern science, of the people of the Netherlands. Such a work is much needed, in view of the facts that there are few foreign students of the Dutch language, and that the popular books about it have such manifest limitations. In 'Geschiedenis van het Nederlandsche Volk' (History of the Netherlandish People), by Prof. P. J. Blok of the University of Groningen, we have what bids fair to supply the need of students who want more than Motley or Davies has yet given. The special abilities of Prof. Blok have long been known, for he is no tyro in the art either of research or of expression. With a combination of powers which suggests both Freeman and Macaulay, he makes the story of the Dutch people one of great human interest. His style is singularly clear, and he has availed himself of the garnered results of the geologist, archæologist, philologist, and legist, besides digesting the standard narratives and monographs. The first volume of his projected work comes in the form of a handsomely printed octavo, with index and colored map of the Netherlands in the thirteenth century, from the press of J. B. Wolters of Groningen. The text in this volume treats of the Roman dominion, the Frankish epoch, the period of the feudal States and their intestine strifes; the rise and power of the counts, bishops, and nobility, the various fortunes of the common people, and the emergence of political life in the form of States. The succeeding volumes will show the development of the nation in the centuries succeeding the thirteenth.

Baron Alexander von Artin's 'Kaspar Hauser: Des Räthsels Lösung' (Zürich: Schmidt) contains nothing new except two documents, namely, a letter of the Grand-duke Ludwig I. to the Minister von Berstett, dated June 5, 1828, and an extract from the diary of a prince to whom Von Berstett confided this letter on his death-bed, with the strict injunction not to publish it until fifty-five years after his decease. Von Berstett died February 16, 1837, and when the appointed term expired, February 16, 1892, the son of the aforesaid prince gave the letter to Von Artin for publication. If these documents are genuine, they prove conclusively that the foundling of Nuremberg was the legitimate heir to the crown of Baden. The brochure has already passed into the fourth edition. We may mention here that 'The Story of Kaspar Hauser, Drawn from Authentic Sources,' by Mrs. Elizabeth E. Evans, the first complete and consecutive account of this mysterious personage in the English language, will be issued early in September by Swan Sonnenschein & Co., London.

In a new volume of 'Essais sur la Littérature Contemporaine' (Paris: Calmann Lévy), M. Ferdinand Brunetière has gathered a dozen or more articles originally contributed to the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, and dealing wholly with the books of the present—with M. Sully-Prudhomme and with the new school of the Symbolists, with the Impressionistic theory of criticism as practised by M. Anatole France and M. Jules Lemaitre, with Naturalism on the Stage, and with the Novel of the Future. Perhaps the boldest of his articles is a defence of literature itself against the sneers of M. Rousse, who was elected to the French Academy because he was a distinguished lawyer. But, whatever subject he discusses, M. Brunetière speaks in no uncertain tones, and he is always worth listening to.

The French author has a means of profit not possessed by American authors: he may arrange for a succession of serial publications of the novel or book of travels in periodicals of decreasing importance. While the *Revue des Deux Mondes* and *L'Illustration* and *Le Temps* contain only novels hitherto unprinted, many minor Parisian periodicals and most of the provincial newspapers are satisfied to offer their readers literary matter already printed in some other publication, and even after it is for sale over the counter in book form. *La Lecture*, for example, was founded two or three years ago to publish only first-rate literature in this second-hand manner; and it was so successful that the same publishers brought out *La Lecture Rétrospective*, to contain the writings of recently deceased French authors. Like most French reviews, *La Lecture* appears twice a month. The same principle is now to be applied to a new weekly, *La Revue Hebdomadaire* (Paris: E. Plon, Nourrit & Cie.), which is to be chiefly eclectic, like *La Lecture*, with original articles on politics and music and the fine arts.

Readers of *L'Art* are familiar with the prolific ornamental designs in head and tailpieces, borders, cartouches, etc., of J. Habert Dys. This artist has begun a series of *livraisons* without text, entitled 'L'Ornement Pratique: Documents d'après nature' (Paris: Librairie de *L'Art*). Each contains four plates of studies, as, of flax, primroses, pinks, grasses, and sprays; or, in another line, of cats, owls, etc. These are cleverly drawn, and many bor-

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rowers will be glad to put them to "practical" account.

The Danzig and Berlin sheets of the fine Perthes Map of the German Empire are now procurable (New York: B. Westermann & Co.). There remain nineteen of the total twenty-seven to be issued.

The American Association for the Advancement of Science will hold its forty-first meeting in Rochester, N. Y., from August 16 to August 24.

—It is known to most readers that the Spanish Government has arranged for a series of international celebrations to be held in Spain, during the coming autumn, for the commemoration of the fourth centenary of the discovery of America by Columbus. In response to the invitation of the Spanish authorities, our Congress, by a recent act, has made provision for the representation of the United States at the most important of these celebrations, known as the "Historico-American Exposition," to be opened in Madrid on the 12th day of September next, and President Harrison has already appointed a Commission to preside over all arrangements that may be made in the name of the United States to this effect. It is greatly to be regretted that, owing to the late date at which Congress acted in the premises, the time for preparing an exhibit on the part of the United States is so short. The Exposition will be conducted, in the strictest sense of the word, according to the comparative method, and will consist of two great sections, one of which is known as the "Historico-European Exhibition" and the other as the "*Historico-American Exposition.*" The former will represent the state which the European continent had reached, in its social development, in its industries and its arts, at the date of the discovery of the New World, while the latter will exhibit, under similar heads, the pre-Columbian social status of America and the social status of America contemporaneous with the conquest and settlements effected by European nations. In this way the two Expositions, standing side by side, will each have a double interest because of the cross-lights which the one will shed on the other. There are three sources from which they will be fed: Museums and establishments under national control; university cabinets and private collections; and treasures belonging to religious corporations. Congress has authorized the Commissioners from the United States to select from the archives of the Federal Government, from the National Museum, and from the various executive departments at Washington such pictures, books, papers, documents, and other articles "as may relate to the discovery and early settlement of America, and to the original inhabitants thereof." The Commissioners are further authorized to secure the loan of similar articles from other museums and private collections, and to arrange and install the whole as "the exhibit of the United States."

—The Commission on the part of the United States consists of Admiral S. B. Luce, U.S.N., Commissioner General, with Dr. James C. Welling, President of the Columbian University, and Dr. George Brown Goode, Assistant Secretary of the Smithsonian Institution, as Adjunct-Commissioners. The Commission has issued a circular, explaining the purport of the Exposition, from which we take the following extract:

The Commission invites the coöperation of persons having objects of any kind suitable for exhibition on this occasion. The collections will be returned in January. Objects intended for the World's Columbian Exposition in Chicago may, by a special arrangement, be forwarded direct from Madrid to Chicago in ample time for installation.

It is especially desired that authors and publishers of books relating to the periods of discovery and conquest, and the colonial history of the several European settlements in America, shall exhibit them. The Commission and its staff will give special attention to the effective presentation of such publications.

Exhibits will be forwarded without charge to Madrid, and returned to the exhibitor free of expense, the Commission bearing the cost of transportation, and becoming responsible for the effective labelling and installation of the objects. All objects should be forwarded to Washington, if possible, before the first of July, addressed to the Madrid Commission, care of the Smithsonian Institution, Washington.

—More than fifty lectures on subjects connected with the discovery of America have already been read before the Madrid Ateneo. When that chief literary and scientific society of Spain debated the question, in June, 1890, how it could best contribute to the celebration of the centenary of the discovery, it approved the proposition of the Chairman of the historical section, Señor Moguel, that a series of public conferences should be given by leading scholars, the happy innovation being made of extending invitations to Portuguese and American specialists. The long and elaborate programme finally decided upon began with an inaugural address, February 13, 1891, by the Prime Minister of Spain, Cánovas del Castillo, himself a distinguished historian. Then the orderly course was fittingly opened with a lecture on the "*Notions of the Ancients on Atlantic Lands.*" Next came the Portuguese historian and statesman Oliveira Martins, with a discourse upon the "Discoveries of the Portuguese anterior to Columbus." Out of the long list of professors and literati who followed, worthy of mention seem several of the Ministers from the South American republics to Spain, and, in particular, Fernández Duro, who spoke of the first voyage, principally with the aim of recovering for Martín Alonso Pinzón the glory which the lecturer thought his due in connection with the event; Capt. Patricio Montojo of the Spanish Navy, who argued that the "First Land Discovered by Columbus" was the island of Guanajani; Señora Emilia Pardo Bazán, whose theme was "The Franciscans and their Influence in the Discovery of America"; and Luís Vidart, who made the greatest sensation of all by his two lectures on "Columbus and Bobadilla," and "Columbus and Spanish Ingratitude." The first was a vehement attempt to rehabilitate the Governor dubbed "infamous" by Roselly de Lorgues, of which the patriotic motive may be seen in the assertion: "It must be clearly said that the opprobrium with which it has been sought to stain the memory of the Comendador Francisco de Bobadilla, depreciates and blackens all the glory which Spain attained in the discovery of the New World." A like note marked Vidart's second lecture, in which he essayed to demolish that part of the "Columbus legend" which asserts that Columbus died in neglect and poverty. Altogether, these Ateneo conferences, if they have made no striking contributions to knowledge, are yet highly significant of the persistence of the literary tradition in Spain.

—The new volume of the Collections of the Massachusetts Historical Society constitutes Part VI. of the Winthrop Papers, which here range in date from July, 1675, to March 25, 1728, and are derived from the later correspondence of Maj.-Gen Wait Still Winthrop, younger son of the Connecticut Governor. He was, according to Samuel Sewall, who succeeded him as Chief Justice of Massachusetts, "a very pious, prudent, couragious New England man"—and Sewall had no higher praise for any one than to call him a (typical) New England man. Winthrop's seemingly Puritanic name was a triple union of family surnames. He left a great real property to his son and daughter, but died intestate, though he had drawn up a will; and the litigation which ensued forms a large topic in the latter half of the volume. Curious lists are given of the persons invited to his funeral, with indications as to their provision with gloves, scarves, rings, and escutcheons. Sixty gold rings cost £63. Sewall, of course, was in his element as one of the bearers, and was ready in due time to make the widow his wife, had she responded to his blandishments. The drapery of the mourners produced itemized bills for "Etalian crape," "allamode," "galoom," and other stuffs; and the military tradition of the deceased called for drum-covers, "cullers," halberts, and half-pikes. The troubles of his son John at New London now began with the estrangement of his sister Anne and her husband Thomas Lechmere over the settlement of the estate. Lechmere furnishes the thread that gives the most unity to the volume, and while the editors are doubtless right in belittling the numerous letters from his pen they have suppressed, those retained have the racy quality of an informal, easy-going nature, quite alluring amid so much primness and respectability. Before he "turned catt in pann" with his brother-in-law, he proved the sincerity of his profession that "a hearty welcome with mean things is better than otherwise." He uses a great many nicknames in his familiar letters, and indulges in much delightful gossip about immigration from the North of Ireland, which he mistrusted as much as the Bostonians of 1830–'50 did that from the South; about the sudden freezing of the harbor and its unbinding by a mighty January thaw, etc. He even dared to write of "a memoriall, or somewhat else, of Doctr. [Cotton] Mather & some other gentl. concerning the customes of the times; but in my weake opinion, notwithstanding its authors, I think it is the emptiest thing I ever read in all my life." Mather would have figured much more than he does in this series but that his letters had already been excerpted and published. Lechmere has been slighted in the poor index, which is neither accurate nor full nor very intelligently made. There are ten pages of valuable facsimiles of autographs of the writers of the several letters. The next volume will contain selections from the correspondence of John Winthrop, F.R.S., for the remainder of his life.

—The second volume of the "Saga Library," edited by William Morris and Eirîkr Magnússon (London: Bernard Quaritch), is entitled 'The Story of the Ere-Dwellers,' and contains felicitous translations of the Eyrbyggja Saga, and a fragment of the Heidarviga Saga ("The Story of the Heath-Slayings"). This last saga is said to be unquestionably the oldest of all the sagas of Iceland, and its quaint language has never before been turned into English. Of the Eyrbyggja Saga Walter Scott made an abstract in English, with the help of an old Latin version, in 1813, and it was printed in 1814 in the unhappy Henry Weber's 'Illustrations of Northern Antiquities,' and reprinted, in 1847, in Mr. Blackwell's edition of Mallet's

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'Northern Antiquities.' The present volume is nearly twice as large as the first one of the series, the text filling 259 pages, and the introduction and notes a full hundred more, while the indexes extend to some ninety additional pages. This increase in the size of the volumes, due to an enthusiasm on the part of the editors which the intelligent publisher is loath to repress, has led Mr. Quaritch to make a modest advance in the price of the books, from 5s. to 7s. 6d. each volume. It is to be hoped that this slight increase will not deter librarians from subscribing for the series. The books contained in it are of permanent value and of high literary excellence, and as the edition is small, the volumes are likely to go out of print and rise in price. The next four numbers—in the printer's hands—are to contain an entirely new translation of the well-known 'Heimskringla' of Snorre Sturleson, with a special map and voluminous notes. Some improvement is desirable in the way of proof-reading, and it would be a gain to abandon, in future volumes, the antiquated method of dividing up the index under various heads (in this case there are five separate alphabets, besides subalphabets), and substitute one general alphabet, retaining, however, the interesting notes inserted in the index.

GEORGE MASON.—I.

The Life of George Mason, 1725–1792. By Kate Mason Rowland. Including his Speeches, Public Papers, and Correspondence. With an Introduction by Gen. Fitzhugh Lee. 2 vols. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1892.

In these comely and copious volumes we have a genealogy of the Mason family of Virginia; a biography of George Mason of Gunston Hall, the Planter Statesman of the Revolution; an abbreviated history of his times; a collection of his writings, speeches, and letters, so far as they can now be recovered; and a commentary on the political principles and opinions of which he was the distinguished advocate. Miss Rowland does her work so carefully that we can but regret the loss of much valuable material which, in the changes and chances of a hundred years since George Mason's death, has failed to be handed down to us. That some of this material was scattered by the havoc of war, in the way she recites, we can easily understand, but much of it was also lost from the want of an historic sense in whole communities of the American people before the civil war. This want was sometimes specially deplorable in its effects at the South, where tradition records, as Miss Rowland tells us, that the wife of Ludwell Lee, son of Richard Henry Lee, converted many of the letters of George Mason into covers for her preserve-jars, as similar treasures among the Bland papers are known to have served as lining for egg-baskets. In the days before the war, Virginia, with all her legitimate State pride, was slow to build the tombs of her political prophets. Miss Rowland makes it apparent, at every stage of her narrative, that she is a great admirer of "the old social order" which was based on slavery at the South, and she gives us a pleasing picture of the baronial independence in which the Southern planter lived on his broad acres, where he not only was surrounded by his village of negro laborers and artisans and by his flocks and herds, but, in the remoter spaces, could ride to the hounds and hunt the deer within his own domains. This segregation of the Southern social life was, however, little congenial to the nurture of an historic spirit among even the members of the ruling class; and though men like Washington, and Jefferson, and Madison abundantly showed that they knew the import and value of preserving records, their compatriots of a later period have often been singularly remiss in giving definition and distinctness to the images of worthies concerning whom they are justly proud. We learn from these volumes, with surprise, that no stone at this day marks the grave of George Mason, though he left five sons to the heritage of his honorable fame, as well as to the heritage of his ample estate. The family graveyard on many a Southern plantation was rarely visited save when its sward was broken to receive a new occupant, and so it might easily fall a prey to neglect, like that which overtook even the family vault of the Washingtons at Wakefield before the close of the first half of the present century.

Among the many modifications wrought in American character by the storm and stress of our civil war, we may count at least as a gain the stimulus it has given to the culture of studies in American history. The elaborate memoir devoted by his grandson to the 'Life and Times' of Patrick Henry, as recently reviewed in these columns, may be cited as a proof of such studies and of the new popular interest to which they appeal. And this becoming memorial in honor of George Mason may be gladly welcomed as an evidence of the same gratifying fact.

George Mason of Gunston Hall was born in 1725. He was a member of the Virginia Assembly in 1759. He was a vestryman of Pohick Church, near Mount Vernon, and was in early association with George Washington. He drafted the "Non-Importation Resolutions" adopted by the members of the Virginia House of Burgesses after the House had been dissolved by the Governor, Lord Botetourt, in 1769. In 1773 he wrote the Defence of Virginia's claim to the public lands west of the Alleghany Mountains on both sides of the Ohio River, and became ever afterwards the recognized expositor of Virginia's pretensions under this head. He drew up the "Fairfax County Resolves" of 1774, pronounced by Jared Sparks "one of the ablest and most luminous expositions of the points at issue between Great Britain and the colonies." In 1776 he drafted the Declaration of Rights and the State Constitution adopted by Virginia in expression of her new autonomy after the Declaration of Independence. Working loyally and zealously in support of American independence, he opposed the emission of paper money and denounced the knavery of legal-tender laws. He favored the honest payment of private debts due to British creditors after the Treaty of Peace, as being required equally by common honesty and by treaty stipulation. He was selected as a delegate to attend the Annapolis Convention called to consult for a revision of the Articles of Confederation, but did not attend because of illness. He was a member of the Federal Convention of 1787 and of the Virginia Convention which sat on the adoption of the Constitution in 1778.

Gen. Washington, who knew this neighbor of his most intimately in all the relations of both public and private life, wrote in 1779 that he had for George Mason at that date an "unreserved friendship," and "wished for instances in which to testify the sincerity of his regard." Jefferson said of Mason that he was "a man of the first order of wisdom among those who acted on the theatre of the Revolution, of expansive mind, profound judgment, cogent in argument, learned in the lore of former constitutions, and earnest for the republican change on democratic principles." A brilliant political controversialist has said of the Fourth Article in Mason's Declaration of Rights that if, in after days, "a deluge of despotism should overspread the world," this single sentence would be sufficient "to rekindle the flame of liberty and revive the race of freemen." If the tribute does something less than justice to the pith and condensation of George Mason's political style, it is only because of the too inflated rhetoric in which the tribute is couched.

Yet it is known by all that this political seer and sage, who certainly ranked among the foremost of the constructive statesmen of America during all the years of crisis which preceded and attended the Revolution, was numbered at last among the most embittered enemies of the new Constitution framed by the Federal Convention of 1787. Early in 1786 we find him opposing the impost bill recommended by the Continental Congress to the adoption of the States, and recommended only as a makeshift to meet the crying wants of the Government at that juncture. Madison, who knew the strength and influence of Mason, confesses at this time to his fears about Mason's "Federal ideas." A few months later he again expresses a fear that Mason may not yet be cured of his "anti-Federal prejudices." It was but natural that these "anti-Federal prejudices" of a planter statesman should be intensified in the latter part of the year 1786 by Jay's negotiations with Gardoqui for the provisional surrender of the Mississippi River to Spain. We know that Gen. Henry Lee, as a member of the Continental Congress at this time, was personally disposed to favor such a temporary surrender on grounds of public policy, though he voted against it in obedience to his instructions as a delegate from Virginia, and also because he foresaw that it would give a handle to "popular declaimers," as he calls them, in their agitation against necessary measures for "bracing" the Federal Government with enlarged powers. In this latter relation he foresaw and foretold that much would depend on the sentiments of George Mason and on his attitude before the Virginia Assembly.

Yet, in spite of all his prepossessions in an anti-Federal direction, Mason seems to have gone to the Federal Convention with an earnest desire to coöperate in measures which should have for their effect to brace the Federal Government against the imbecilities and anarchy of the Confederation. He avowed himself early on the floor of the Convention as favoring a government which should operate directly on individuals, and not on States, but he said that he did not wish to push the experiment too far. After the Convention had been sitting for some five or six weeks, and when the dissidence between the small States and the large States, as also between "Nationalists" and "States-rights men," had been fully revealed, he did not despair of an accommodation, and proclaimed that he "would bury his bones in Philadelphia sooner than expose his country to a dissolution of the Convention without anything being done." A few days later, it is true, he confesses much concern at the "aristocratic principles" which some gentlemen had advanced in the confidential debates of that body. With all his republican simplicity, he never failed to place civil security before political rights, and therefore he openly avowed that he had small faith in the result of elec-

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tions for an office like that of President of the United States, if the choice of a President was to be left free to the people at large. He thought the reëligibility of the President should be absolutely prohibited as the very *sine qua non* of republican stability. The toleration of the slave trade till the year 1808 seemed to him at once a national infamy and a public peril. He thought that the provision made for the passage of navigation laws by a majority vote in Congress would for ever put the planting States at the mercy of the trading States, and so work to the disparagement and damage of the former. Towards the close of the session, when the ultimate shape of the projected Constitution had been pretty clearly defined, we find him no longer proposing to lay his bones in Philadelphia, but indignantly proclaiming that he "would sooner chop off his right hand than put it to the Constitution as it then stood."

What he then protested within the walls of the "secret conclave" he hastened, so soon as the doors of the Convention were opened, to proclaim from the housetops to the enemies of the Constitution who stood nearest to him among the disaffected and seceding members of the Pennsylvania Convention. "George Mason's hand in a chopping-box" became, for months, a by-word of derision among the Federalists. It seemed to the friends of the Constitution that Mason, in the violence of his opposition, was prone to exceed the limits of dispassionate debate. Jefferson has remarked that there was "a dash of bitter cynicism" in the oratory of Mason whenever "provocation made it seasonable." Shortly after the Federal Convention rose, Washington predicted, from his knowledge of his neighbor's character and convictions, that Mason's reasons against the Constitution "would be clothed in most terrific array for the purpose of alarming." Madison, in his correspondence, soon reports that Mason's "licentiousness of animadversion" was said to spare no longer even such as were the moderate opponents of the Constitution; and the complaint is made that, growing every day "more bitter and outrageous in the effort to carry his point," he would probably, in the end, "be thrown by the violence of his passions into the politics of Mr. Henry," whom Madison suspected of squinting at a Southern Confederacy. In fact, the opposition of Mason to the ratification of the Constitution was, if possible, more inveterate and intense than that of Henry. Towards the close of the Virginia Convention, he held up the spectre of civil dissension in order to deter the friends of the Constitution from forcing it on a reluctant people.

Miss Rowland thinks that some intimation concerning the effect of this exciting appeal on his part may be gathered from the remarks with which Gen. Henry Lee, the "Light Horse Harry" of the Revolution, sought to do away with the strong impression which Mason had obviously made on his hearers. But she does not tell us what it was that "the Federal advocate" said in order to do away with this impression. After expressing surprise and grief that such language, so well qualified to produce the sedition it menaced, should be used by "a character so venerable and estimable," Gen. Lee remarked that "if the madness of some and the vice of others should risk the awful appeal" forecast by Mason, he trusted that the friends of the paper then lying on the table "would meet the afflicting call with the firmness and fortitude which become men summoned to defend what they conceive to be the true interest of their country." It will be seen that the coming events at Gettysburg and Appomattox, even before "the paper then lying on the table" had been quickened into life, were already casting their dim shadows before them on the walls of the Virginia Convention of 1788. But how little could Gen. Lee foresee that in "the awful appeal" at which he shuddered, but which he accepted in the name of the Constitution, he would himself be called, at the head of Federal troops, to put down a popular insurrection in Pennsylvania, and that his own more distinguished son would one day be the serene and intrepid leader of insurgent forces arrayed against the Union in the name of the States. And how little could either Lee or Mason foresee that, in that collision of hostile forces, the very institution of slavery which Mason had denounced as bringing "the judgment of Heaven on a nation," would be ground to powder, with a profound sense of relief, after the agony was over, alike on the part of those who maintained and of those who opposed it. In the large logic of human events, the mills of the gods grind slowly, but they grind exceeding fine; and they grind exceeding fine precisely because they work incessantly in the *intervalla ac spiramenta temporum* of which Tacitus writes.

MAITLAND'S SLANG DICTIONARY.

The American Slang Dictionary. Embodying all American and English Slang Phrases in Current Use, with their Derivation and Philology. By James Maitland. Chicago: The Author. 1891.

"Dictionaries," said Dr. Johnson, "are like watches: the worst is better than none, and the best cannot be expected to go quite true." If the first part of this dictum is not correct in all cases, it approaches that result in most. The poorest of either of the two things mentioned gives information sufficiently exact much more often than it misleads. Therefore, those who are fully acquainted with the difficulties that stand in the way of perfection in the preparation of dictionaries of any sort can hardly fail to be lenient to shortcomings. There is so much inevitable drudgery in the compilation of the worst of them, there is so much inevitable inaccuracy pervading the very best, that he must be the most hardened of the fierce race of critics who can turn over the pages of one of the most ill-executed of this class of works and not experience some relenting feelings.

Yet it must be confessed at the outset that, in the examination of this work, the most tender-hearted of the tribe will need to call into active exercise every relenting feeling he possesses. He who would gladly say something favorable or else say nothing at all, is placed in a peculiarly trying position when called upon to notice the present performance. If the precise truth must be told, seldom has labor been spent to less purpose than in the compilation of this volume. Seldom has the accomplishment of a task of peculiar difficulty fallen into hands so ill-equipped for accomplishing it properly. The hopeless thing, too, about it is, that it is clear from the introductory matter not only that the compiler does in all honesty and sincerity think the work to be well done, but that he also purposes to continue doing more of the same sort.

Let us now, avoiding generalities, mention a few of the many particulars which are calculated to make the judicious grieve. The work is styled 'The American Slang Dictionary.' It uses the definite article in the title; it would have a great deal of difficulty in establishing a claim to the indefinite. So far from being an American slang dictionary, there is an exceedingly small proportion of the words and phrases contained in it which are peculiar to America. Indeed, the author himself professes that he aims to embody the accepted slang of daily use both in the United States and in Great Britain. There is surely a certain degree of impropriety, in such a case, in making this country even remotely responsible for the contents of the volume. But something much worse remains to be said. So far from being a slang dictionary, a considerable share of its words and phrases cannot be regarded as slang at all in the modern sense of that term. Furthermore, a large number cannot be regarded as slang in any sense that term has ever had.

This last is a characteristic which strikes the attention on every page. The compiler does not really know what is meant by the word slang, either in its original sense or in the sense in which it is now almost invariably employed. This is a peculiarity which he shares, indeed, with most editors of this class of works, and would not deserve special mention here were it not that, in his case, the usual ignorance has attained dimensions unusually formidable. The reader is kept in a perpetual state of wonder as to the motives which could have influenced the compiler to select the vocabulary he has brought together. He inserts in this dictionary a number of words which were once in good literary use but have now become archaic. Yet he assures us in his preface that he has found it necessary to exclude obsolete slang expressions of former days. He inserts in it also words that are merely provincial or dialectic. Here again he informs us that much of the gypsy cant has been omitted as now unintelligible. It would be interesting to know when the time was that gypsy cant was ever intelligible to the English-speaking people, or formed any part of what at the present time is called slang. Furthermore, he inserts in this dictionary technical terms and those peculiar to various trades and professions. Last, and worst of all, he inserts, as slang, expressions which have belonged to the language of literature from the very outset, and have been and still continue to be used by the best writers. In truth he has included in this collection any word or phrase which for any reason happened to strike his fancy as being at all out of the way, not caring to consider whether it is so in reality, but knowing nothing beyond the fact that it is out of any way with which he is acquainted.

Little, too, as have been the pains taken in the selection of words, the character of the vocabulary is no worse than that of the definitions. Of these latter many are inadequate, some are inaccurate. Much of the value of a dictionary of any kind, but specially of a dictionary of this kind, lies in the illustrative quotations it furnishes. This particular volume, however, does not furnish a single one. The nearest approach it makes to it is the citation of some common phrase in which the expression occurs; but even of these very few are found. Moreover, the information imparted is at times so peculiar that one is led to doubt whether the preposterous statement made is a perverse misapprehension, or a thinly disguised attempt at irony, or simply nothing more than the result of combined innocence and ignorance. Thus, under *Joe Miller*, its definition as "an old and oft-told story; a 'chestnut,'" is followed by this remarkable item of news: "One Joseph Miller, an English

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clown, is credited with the publication of a book of moss-covered jests now in the possession of Chauncey M. Depew."

Nor are these the only respects in which the performance of the work fails to fulfil its promise. On the title-page we are told that this dictionary not only embodies all American and English slang phrases—which it is very far from doing—but also their derivation and philology. To illustrate the value of this assertion let us take the first letter. There are in this volume more than a hundred words and phrases recorded under the vowel A. Not half-a-dozen instances can be found in which there is the slightest attempt to give the derivation; and so far as the necessarily cursory examination of the whole vocabulary will justify the generalization, we are fairly confident that the same proportion will hold good for the rest of the alphabet.

Not that any fault is to be found with the omission. Attention is called to it because it supplies another instance of the discrepancy existing between the announcement in the title and the condition of things in the body of the work. In itself the neglect to record derivations is a positive advantage. The origin of slang words and phrases is on the whole the most puzzling question of its kind with which the student of language has to deal. The best-informed philologist might well refuse to undertake such a task. If he undertook it, he would be compelled to admit that in a large number, perhaps in the large majority, of instances he would be unable to solve the problems presented. It is easy to fancy what the result would be were the work attempted by one possessed of the linguistic acquirements of the present compiler. We are not, indeed, compelled to resort to our fancy. The derivations given, outside of a few instances where it is almost impossible to go astray, are remarkable for their absurdity or for their impossibility. The editor has not even taken the pains to examine the somewhat scanty sources of knowledge that exist, and is probably unaware even of their existence.

These observations may have the appearance of harsh criticism. To show that this is not really the side upon which they err, all that is necessary will be to make a strict examination of the very first page of the volume; for upon that one page, as in most of those that follow, the characteristics of improper selection, inadequate definition, and wrong derivation will be found exemplified. It contains the following eleven words and phrases: *A. B.*, *abaft*, *abeam*, *abide*, *Abigail*, *aboard*, *aboon*, *about right*, *above one's bend*, *above par*, *above snakes*. Of these *A. B.* as a contraction of "able seaman" may possibly pass. *Abaft* and *abeam* are both perfectly legitimate nautical terms, and are no more to be reckoned slang than "starboard" and "port." Then follows *abide* with the phrase quoted, "I cannot abide him." It is here inadequately defined as 'to suffer,' though it more plainly means 'to put up with,' 'to endure.' This sense of the word goes back to the fifteenth century at least, is found from that time on in good writers and serious compositions, and, though at present not so common as formerly, and perhaps steadily tending to be confined to the colloquial speech, has never been slang and is not so now.

The next word—*Abigail* in the sense of 'a lady's maid'—is a study in the editor's methods of derivation. He remarks that it is 'said to be from the name of Mrs. Masham (Abigail Hill), who, as lady-in-waiting to Queen Anne, distinguished herself as a mistress of intrigue.' A reference to so common a work as Webster's Dictionary might have suggested a doubt as to the correctness of the derivation, for in that work Pepys is given as an authority for this meaning. But a consultation of either the Century Dictionary or of that of the Philological Society would have shown that the word is taken from the name of the waiting-gentlewoman in Beaumont and Fletcher's play of "The Scornful Lady," which in the seventeenth century was extremely popular on the stage. A further consultation of the latter lexicon would, moreover, have supplied a quotation exhibiting the use of *Abigail*, in the sense mentioned, as early as 1693, some nine years before Anne came to the throne.

The inability to distinguish between what is an Americanism and what is American slang is illustrated in the editor's treatment of the next word. Under *aboard* is given the expression "all aboard." In itself this phrase is both legitimate English and ancient English. From an indefinite past it has been an order applied to those embarking on a vessel. The peculiarity of usage in this country of applying it to those who are going upon a land-vehicle of any sort may be deemed either an extension or a perversion of usage; but while it is a genuine Americanism, it can with no propriety be treated as American slang. An observation of a somewhat similar character can be made about *aboon*. It is a form belonging to the northern dialect of England, and has nothing whatever to do with slang of any sort, and least of all with American slang.

The four phrases which follow can, perhaps, be all fairly included under the denomination of slang, provided they can all be said to exist. They are taken from Bartlett's 'Dictionary of Americanisms.' One of them—*above par*—in its strict sense as referring to stocks, has certainly no business here; but in its colloquial extension to other matters it may be justly accorded a place. The last one, however—*above snakes*—must be regarded as extremely suspicious. It is given by Bartlett as a specimen of exaggerated cant for 'from the ground,' and the only authority adduced by him for its use is a sentence taken from Lady Emmeline Stuart Wortley's 'Travels in the United States.' It has every appearance of an expression originated by an individual, and not at all of one current in even the smallest of communities. At the same time it is not safe to make any positive statement on a point of this kind, for no one person can be expected to be familiar with the local peculiarities of speech that prevail over a continent. The very preface to the present volume furnishes in this matter an instructive warning as to the danger of general assertions. In it the compiler severely censures Hotten for mentioning as American slang four words which are particularly specified. He declares them to be atrocities of which no American has ever heard. Yet one of them—*exflunctify*—the present writer has known to be used by several persons; and two of the others, in a somewhat modified form, have been almost equally familiar.

The examination of every succeeding page in this volume would show a state of facts not essentially different from that found on the first. What, indeed, can be thought of the linguistic training or of the judgment of a man who puts down, as slang, terms descriptive of things peculiar to America, like *calumet*, *sachem*, *wigwam*, *bayou*, *crevasse*, and *eagle* as a gold coin; or such obsolete or obsolescent English words as *fardel*, *featly*, *frampold*, *dight*, *skinker*, and *thole;* or such common and legitimate ones as *athwart*, *attic*, *crabbed*, *dazed*, *dumbfounded*, *quandary*, and even the word *slang* itself? Yet these are merely specimens of scores and scores of examples that could be cited. The truth of the matter is, that the compiler of the volume has not made himself acquainted with the ordinary literature of his subject, in spite of the pretentious tone of his preface. There he tells us that "the compilation has been the work of years, the information has been derived from books of all sorts and men of all classes, and the work is offered as an honestly meant and painstaking contribution to the literature of slang." Elsewhere he says that no such collection as this has ever been made. No work, we are told, heretofore published upon this subject meets the needs of the educated people of the United States in the present day. No English one in particular has so much as touched upon the great store-house of native American slang, which has been born of our development and was made necessary by our novel conditions. After reading such remarks one comes to appreciate fully how something more than lively interest and virtuous intention is indispensable to the preparation of even the most ordinary glossary. Within the past two years reviews have appeared within these very columns of two English slang dictionaries. With all their imperfections, these not only contain such words as *boom*, *bonanza*, *boodle*, and *dude*, which we are here informed have never been recorded, but they also devote pages to quotations illustrative of their use, while to this point the volume before us can hardly be said to give up a line. Indeed, from a large number of the mistakes and misstatements here found a consultation of some of the most common books of reference would have saved the editor; and while the ambition to make a compilation of this sort is creditable, it must be said of the present work that it not only has no reason to show for its existence, but furnishes a good many reasons to suggest the desirability of its non-existence.

Mahdiism and the Egyptian Sudan: Being an Account of the Rise and Progress of Mahdiism, and of Subsequent Events in the Sudan to the Present Time. By Maj. F. R. Wingate. With 30 maps and plans. Macmillan & Co. 1891. 8vo, pp. xxviii, 617.

THE time has not yet come to write a complete history of the revolt of the Sudanese against their Egyptian rulers. Not only is it too recent for the various events to appear in their true relative importance, but there are still urgent political reasons why the part borne by England should not be fully revealed. These limitations are evident in Maj. Wingate's work, and make it chiefly valuable as furnishing important material for the future historian. He gives an interesting account of the Mahdi and the strange system of morals and conduct which he and his successor, the Khalifa, inculcate upon their followers, with numerous quotations from their letters and proclamations. The greater part of the book is, naturally, occupied with a narrative of the military operations in the twelve different provinces of the Egyptian Sudan, a vast region without well-defined boundaries. The difficulty which the reader would have in following the course of events in these widely separated districts is greatly lessened by an admirable series of maps which give the extent of the revolt at the close of each year from 1882 to March, 1891. The author, who is the head of the Intelligence Department of the Egyptian

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Army, writes at times with much vigor and with not a little descriptive power. At others his style is as dry as that of an official report. This is especially noticeable in his accounts of the sieges and the more than seventy battles and skirmishes fought, in which sometimes minuteness of detail is carried to an extent too great for the patience of any but the purely military reader. His work as a whole, however, shows constant signs of painstaking and conscientious labor, and a complete mastery of his subject so far as his means of information have permitted. Some of the defects which are to be detected in his account are to be attributed to his official position, and to the possibility that the end of the struggle for the Sudan may not yet have been reached.

The culminating point of interest, of course, is the fall of Khartum, which was due, not to treachery, as has generally been supposed, but simply to the delay of the English rescuing force. Had Sir Charles Wilson arrived only two days earlier than he did, the city would have been saved and the whole course of events changed. This is apparent from the testimony of one of the Arab leaders in the successful attack, who has since returned to his allegiance and is now a respected teacher in the Azhar University at Cairo. He says that the Mahdi, greatly alarmed at the approach of the English, determined, with the advice of his principal officers, to abandon the siege and retire to El-Obeid in Kordofan. One man alone opposed this design and prevailed upon him to make one more effort to take the city before his retreat. The assaulting column found that the ditch which was the principal defence of Khartum on the south, had been partly filled with mud during the high Nile, and over this it made its way into the city, overcoming without difficulty the feeble resistance of Gordon's exhausted and famishing garrison.

Another unfortunate mishap in the long series of which this book is the melancholy chronicle, was the death of King John of Abyssinia. For some time it was believed that in a battle with the Mahdists he was killed and his army annihilated. It now appears that the Abyssinians were completely victorious, and that the King, while seated in the centre of the captured camp, fell mortally wounded by a stray bullet. Upon this his followers immediately retired to their own country without attempting to reap any of the fruits of their victory.

It is difficult to get a clear idea of the operations on the Red Sea littoral from Major Wingate's pages. Apparently at no time within the past six years has it been impossible, with a very moderate expenditure of men and material, to put an end to the guerrilla warfare which has so long desolated this region. As we read of the frequent change of commanders and the continual sending and withdrawal of troops, the impression prevails either that there has been no consistent plan for subduing the Mahdists, or that there is ground for the charge that it is in the interest of Egyptian politics that a running sore should be maintained in the country about Suakin.

Maj. Wingate's ostentatious refusal to touch upon the actual state of affairs at the present time in the Sudan, because it would be entering "into the region of undeveloped plans and current political questions," gives color to the belief that the reconquest of this country is contemplated by the military authorities of Egypt. There can be little doubt, however, that this will not be attempted so long as Sir Evelyn Baring holds his present responsible position. It is natural that there should be a strong desire to try the strength of the reorganized Egyptian army in other than merely defensive operations on the frontier. A very favorable account is given of the new fellaheen conscripts, who, under the influence of regular pay and humane treatment, have greatly improved, even developing fair fighting qualities. But Maj. Wingate does such scant justice to the native officers that the Commander-in-Chief, Sir Francis Grenfell, feels it necessary, in his introduction to the book, to apologize for the lack of the proper recognition of their services.

Character painting is not one of the author's strong points. A brief outline of the Mahdi's life is given, and there is a fine description of his preaching and its effects, but the man himself remains indistinct. He is credited with great abilities, but without sufficient evidence, since the success of the revolution which he headed was due wholly to the weakness of the Egyptians, men "who robbed without being strong, bore arms without having the courage to use them, and professed religion without confidence in its virtue." The same is true, though in a lesser degree, of his successor, the Khalifa, of Osman Digna, formerly a merchant and slave-dealer at Suakin, and of the brave fanatic, Nejumi, the greatest leader of them all, who fell at the battle of Toski. Much is told about them, and yet they have but a shadowy existence in these pages.

Notwithstanding the author's professed reticence in respect to the present condition of the Sudan, it is evident that the strength of Mahdiism as an aggressive force is well-nigh exhausted. Father Ohrwalder, one of the little band of European captives who recently made their escape to Egypt, estimates that three-fifths of the population of the Sudan have been destroyed during the past ten years through war, famine, and disease. One tribe, which in 1880 was 40,000 strong and possessed more than 100,000 camels, and was the main carrier of merchandise in the Sudan, is now "almost extinct." Maj. Wingate asserts, no doubt truthfully, that the only result of the revolt to the Sudanese has been the substitution of one set of tyrants for another even more cruel and rapacious, and that the remnants of the scattered tribes are now anxious for the return of their Egyptian rulers. Their new masters are the emirs of the fierce Baggara, "the Red Indians of the Sudan," who inhabit the fertile country to the south of Khartum. These Arabs, furious at the suppression of the slave-trade, their chief source of revenue, were the first to rise at the call of the Mahdi, who chose his successor, the reigning Khalifa, from among their chiefs. Whether this man, who is credited with great cunning, will succeed in the formation of a stable Mohammedan State, having peaceful commercial relations with Egypt, it is impossible now to say. This, however, is a solution of the question which many having the interests of both countries at heart profoundly desire, though it may be opposed to the designs of the military party to which this author belongs.

Maj. Wingate's story closed with a narration of the events of 1889, but in a supplement he gives an account of the operations on the Red Sea Coast and the occupation of the district of Tokar in February, 1891, a movement which has evoked much hostile criticism in England. In an appendix there are a number of official reports and other papers, such as Gen. Gordon's famous proclamation concerning slavery, and extracts from Col. Stewart's report on the Sudan made soon after the outbreak of the rebellion.

The Colonial Era. By George Park Fisher, D.D., LL.D. [American History Series.] Charles Scribner's Sons. 1892. Pp. xviii, 348.

THE present time is an age of "series" and brief handbooks on historical subjects, and publishers naturally recognize their opportunity in the Columbian year. The work under review is the first of five volumes designed to tell the story of that part of America which forms the United States, from its discovery to the period of reconstruction following the civil war. The planners of this series have been wise in their apportionment, and have done well to confine the story of American beginnings down to 1756 within the compass of a single volume. It may be questioned, however, whether it would not have been better had they included an account of the downfall of the power of France in North America in the history of the colonial struggles of which it is the completion, rather than yoke it, as they proposed to do, with the story of the Revolution of 1776.

Under considerable limitations of space, Prof. Fisher has prepared a most useful handbook. Three introductory chapters of less than thirty pages in all make ready the way for his real task, the history of the thirteen colonies which eventually formed the American Union. That story he divides into two portions, making the point of separation the English Revolution of 1688. The first part treats of Virginia, Maryland, the Carolinas, New England, New York, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania, in the order named—a grouping which allows the differing conditions of the Southern, Northern, and Middle colonies to be clearly pointed out. In the second portion of the book the narrative is continued to the outbreak of the final struggle with France, the colonies now being treated in their geographic order from north to south. The point of division between the two periods is certainly happily chosen, for the Revolution of 1688 had an influence in the colonies only second to its effects in the mother country.

In his preface Prof. Fisher acknowledges his indebtedness to the works of Winsor, Doyle, and Palfrey; but he is everywhere independent in his judgments, and is thoroughly abreast of current discussion on disputed points. Thus, for example, he holds, in distinction from the late Prof. Johnston, that in Connecticut colony the towns were not primarily independent communities whose union formed the State; while he points out that in New Haven colony, on the contrary, they were originally self-governing and separate (pp. 128-130). But the most conspicuous feature of Prof. Fisher's little book is its breadth and fairness. His conception of history is very different from the narrow view of the late Prof. Freeman; not only political events but religious thought and social conditions demand his attention. The book avoids the dangers into which a New England writer on American history usually falls. It is neither predominantly political nor theological, and it recognizes the contributions of other colonies than those east of the Hudson to our national life. Prof. Fisher is at his best in comprehensive but compact statement. The accounts of the early discoveries and attempts at colonization (pp. 12 29); of the causes leading to the settlement of New England (pp. 85-93); and of the effect on the colonies of the Revolution of 1688 (pp. 207-212) are admirable examples of condensed and lucid narrative.

Nor is the writer's impartiality less obvious. He recognizes the right of King James to re-

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fuse the innovations proposed by the Puritans, while he declares the sovereign's spirit in dealing with that party "insolent and arbitrary" (p. 101). He admits the hostility of the early New England settlers to forms of faith and worship differing from their own; but he shows that, "in the absence of a commonly accepted principle of religious liberty, each party, in case its opponent should get the power, had nothing to look for but subjugation. For one party to give ecclesiastical freedom to its adversary was to forge an instrument for its own destruction" (p. 107). Yet the really tolerant spirit of the Lords of Baltimore has full appreciation, though Prof. Fisher's judgment is "that the younger Baltimore—and in this respect he closely resembled his father—while he aimed to provide a safe asylum for adherents of his own creed, was mainly concerned to build up a lucrative and flourishing colony, whatever might be the creed of its inhabitants"; and he points out that "when religious discussion at length became sharp [in Maryland], toleration gave way" (pp. 65, 107).

In Prof. Fisher's view, Roger Williams was neither a faultless prophet nor simply a disturber of the State. "He was an enthusiast, lacking that ingredient of hatred which turns the enthusiast into the fanatic." His vagaries, and the dangers which they brought to Massachusetts, led to his banishment; but the doctrine of "soul-liberty," though "not one of the main grounds of his expulsion from the colony," is sufficient to give him "lasting distinction" (pp. 114–116). A similar fairness of judgment marks Prof. Fisher's representation of the feelings of the colonies and the mother country towards each other during the first half of the eighteenth century (pp. 208–211).

Prof. Fisher closes with a brief sketch of colonial literature, so brief that it is little more than a suggestive outline which might well have been extended; but from his judgment there can be little dissent when he affirms: "In truth, in the colonial period prior to the middle of the last century there were only two authors who rise above a merely provincial rank. These were Benjamin Franklin and Jonathan Edwards" (p. 319). A chronological table of considerable fulness, a bibliographical note professedly designed for "younger students," but containing much in the way of comment that is of wider interest, a good index, and three well-executed but rather general maps, complete the book.

The work is remarkably free from errors of statement or typography. The name of the missionary at Norridgewock is printed "Rasle" on pp. 214, 346, and "Rasles" on pp. 229, 230. Probably "Rale," as Mr. Parkman spells it from an autograph, would be better than either. The publishers of the "American History Series" are certainly fortunate in the character of their first volume. Prof. Fisher has given us a compact, suggestive, and readable account of our colonial history—the best brief sketch of the period of which it treats.

History of the Nineteenth Army Corps. By Richard B. Irwin, Lieut. Col. U. S. V., Asst. Adjt. Gen. of the Corps and of the Department of the Gulf. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 8vo, pp. 528, with maps.

Col. Irwin's book had hardly come from the press when the news of his death was also published. The task which was his last was that on which his heart was set, and he was happy in completing it, though he did not live to hear the commendations of his comrades and of all who are interested in the military history of the country.

A more conscientious piece of work was never done. The author spared no pains to be accurate, and there are many proofs of the bestowal of very great labor on minor points which a writer is tempted to neglect. The tone is one of candor, and the writer's spirit is a judicial one, with as little of prejudice as possible, and a freedom from rancor which is every way admirable. All this is the more noticeable and praiseworthy because the campaigns of the corps have been the subject of much bitter controversy. Some of its regiments were among those which accompanied Butler in the first occupation of New Orleans by the national forces, and most of the others went with Banks to Louisiana in December, 1862. The campaign in the Teche country, the siege of Port Hudson, and the Red River campaign were the chief events in the experience of the corps in the Southwest. It was then brought back to the North, and completed its military work in the Shenandoah Valley under Sheridan, where it had an honorable part in the battles of Opequon, Fisher's Hill, and Cedar Creek.

The Louisiana campaigns have been only vaguely known, and their military importance has been greatly underestimated. A clear and soldierly account of them was very much needed, and this is exactly what Col. Irwin has given us. Except in the Red River expedition, there was very little to apologize for; and even there, while the result was unsuccessful, there was much which reflected honor upon the officers and men of the several divisions that made up the army. A candid reader of the book will close it with a better opinion of Gen. Banks than has been the popular one, for, in spite of one or two great errors, his general leadership was good, and he had the merit (no small one in the eyes of soldiers) that he led his troops in person, and was to be found near the front whenever they were engaged.

Col. Irwin has also thrown new light upon the relations of Banks's campaigns to those of Grant, McClernand, and Steele. It has not been generally known that the orders of the War Department looked to the union under Banks of the forces commanded by all these officers, and it was evidence of honesty and unselfishness in Banks that he did not make what seemed to him the public good yield to the ambition to enlarge his own importance by a junction of Grant's army with his own. The author has also dealt out even-handed justice in emphasizing the fact that, in the ill-fated Red River campaign, the orders from Washington were that the expedition must be ended within a month and a half. He reasons fairly in urging that such an inflexible limit made it impossible for the army to resume the offensive after the check at Mansfield, since delays then became inevitable which would extend the time beyond that which was thus peremptorily set.

In his determination to write a strictly military memoir, Col. Irwin has systematically avoided matters of civil administration of the department. He has nothing to say of the political scheme for organizing loyal State governments in Louisiana and Arkansas, and he makes no reference to the cotton-trading scandals which are so intimately connected with the Red River campaign. This, of course, prevents a full discussion of the general plan of action; for these things were so intimately blended with the military reasons for action that the one part cannot be understood without the other. The author's task was undoubtedly a pleasanter one as he limited it, and possibly the scandals of the time were so distasteful to him that he would not have written at all if he had been obliged to treat of them. Yet the history of that period will not be completed until the dissection is thoroughly made, however repellent it may be. He has even gone further in his self-imposed limits, and has forborne all discussion of the personal relations of Banks to Grant, T. W. Sherman, A. J. Smith, Stone, Franklin, and to Admiral Porter. Here, also, are burning questions in each case, and Col. Irwin could have thrown great light on them, and so upon the history of the whole campaign, if he had been willing to do so.

But we must take the author's work for what he chose to make it. Within his chosen boundaries, he has done his task so well that it must be a permanent starting-point for those who may wish to push their researches more deeply into the characters and motives of the men who figured prominently in political and military affairs in the critical year of the war.

The Origin of Metallic Currency and Weight Standards. By William Ridgeway, Professor of Greek in Queen's College, Cork. Cambridge (Eng.): University Press; New York: Macmillan. 1892.

Compound arithmetic can certainly make itself very disagreeable. From the urchin writhing in the agonies of a long sum in long measure, up to Belshazzar, watching the hand write upon the wall those distressful words, "Pounds, pounds, ounces, drams," that suggested there was an account to settle with God, mortals have doubtless undergone more misery, first and last, from this branch of mathematics than from any other. On the other hand, to accompany a learned and ingenious essayist in his explorations of ancient metrology, to cut the rope that ties us to the here and now, to mount the heights of speculation, borne up by a beautiful and globular theory, to cleave the thin air of ancient texts, and trust to our guide to get us back to *terra firma*, this is a most delightful and entertaining pastime. Alas! we have blown our last parting kiss to the theorists of our boyhood, Boeckh, Queipo, Hultsch, and the rest. They have sailed away for ever, and we shall never see their like upon earth again, with those two beautiful propositions of theirs, first, that, in the ancient systems generally, the units of weight, length, and capacity were connected in much the same scientific way as the gramme, the metre, and the litre are connected; and, second, that in the ancient world pretty much all the weights and measures of all climes and ages were in simple commensurable relations to one another. We know that, before the adoption of the metric system, different towns of Europe used at least 400 different pounds, and probably twice as many. The units of capacity and of length were quite as numerous; and there was no rational connection between them. In short, the language of quantity was as various as the dialects of speech. But the accepted doctrine until lately was that the Babylonian (or, as some said, the Egyptian) system was strictly scientific; and that all the peoples of antiquity followed that, or, at least, used only standards commensurable with those of that system, or, at most, slightly modified from it. These propositions rested upon the testimony of ancient authors, supplemented by divers ingenious arithmetical computations by which certain relations between certain quantities were made to appear. If anybody objected, as

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many a man of logical sense did, that such calculations proved nothing but the idle industry of their inventors, and that the documents were almost all of extremely late date, and probably expressed merely convenient approximations, like "A pint's a pound the whole world round," the answer was that we were not at liberty to reject the only evidence in our possession. Yet some enduring work was accomplished by the old metrologists; namely, they weighed and measured, besides coins, perhaps a hundred ancient standards and a smaller number of other monuments.

Within a few years Mr. W. M. Flinders Petrie has determined the values of many hundred additional ancient standards and has measured thousands of monuments. What is far more important, he has contrived methods by which scientific logic can be brought to bear with all its force upon questions of ancient metrology. His conclusions will be found summarized in the article "Weights and Measures" in the 'Encyclopædia Britannica,' last edition. Having determined no less than 516 weight-standards unearthed by him in the Greek-Egyptian town of Naucratis, he has embodied the results in a curve whose abscissas measure the quantities of the weights, while its ordinates are proportional to the numbers of specimens of the different quantitative values. This curve shows certain maxima; and upon these maxima it is precisely that Petrie bases his reasoning. We know from many careful experimental researches that when men try to reproduce many times any quantity, the values they do produce will cluster about the truth, or about the truth affected by a constant error. The curve of these values will show a maximum at that point. Now, the Naucratis makers of weights were undoubtedly trying to reproduce some standards, legal or illegal. Consequently, each well-marked maximum of the curve represents the value of a standard they were trying to reproduce. This logic is irrefragable. Prof. Ridgeway endeavors to break it down by the remark that many of the weights may have been fraudulent, and *that* as well by being too heavy as by being too light. Granted; but this in no wise weakens Mr. Petrie's reasoning from maxima, which Prof. Ridgeway does not seem fully to apprehend. In order that these falsifications should produce maxima in the curve, it would be requisite that the counterfeiters should aim at quantitatively definite falsifications, and the definitely false standards so produced and put into use would be, *ipso facto*, new, units. In short, a clearly marked maximum must represent a distinct unit, a distinct aim, explain its origin as you may. The general upshot of Mr. Petrie's inquiry into the weights of Naucratis is that many more units were in use in that town than could have been found in Nuremberg, or in Venice, or in any great mediæval mart. So the theory that the ancients did not have the same variety of standards that has marked the modern world down to our generation is exploded at one blast; and, that gone, the ridiculous idea that the units of mass, length, and capacity were scientifically adjusted evaporates by its intrinsic volatility. It is only commerce, extensive, pervasive, and voluminous, that can bring about a unification of units, and nobody can maintain that there was as much commerce when Gibraltar was at the end of the world as there was after men had circumnavigated the globe.

Prof. Ridgeway's theory is that before the use of metals there was a universal unit of barter throughout Europe, Asia, and Africa, to wit, the cow. Of all the metals gold first became known, and the balance was invented in order to weigh gold. Consequently, the earliest unit of weight was the gold unit; and this was fixed at the amount of gold exchangeable for a cow. Strangely enough, the cow had the same gold value in all countries and in all ages, namely, 130 to 135 grains Troy ($5 is 129 grains, 900 fine). In order to reproduce this unit, there were rules for building it up from the seeds of different kinds of grains. The author does not mention that similar rules were given by Arabian metrologists for forming the dirhem and mithcal. All the leading systems of weights of antiquity are passed in review and explained on these principles. The Roman *as* is made to have been a bar of copper from which fractions were broken off as required.

Though the author finds much fault with the "school of Boeckh," especially for supposing that units of different kinds were originally connected in the French style, yet he himself really belongs to the old school, because he attaches more importance to documents than to monuments. Now, experience has shown that this method cannot lead to any fixed conclusions. Many places in this essay are marked by the arbitrariness and the one-eyedness which belong to the old books. But judging it as a performance of the old school, in which complete truth and finality are not to be expected, but only valuable suggestions mixed with fancies, it must be acknowledged that this is a strong work. It bristles with interesting facts many of which have never before been used by metrologists. The evidences are marshalled with consummate skill, and we cannot doubt that several of the doctrines here put forth will take a permanent place among the principles of ancient metrology.

The Autobiography of an English Gamekeeper (John Wilkins of Stanstead, Essex). Edited by Arthur H. Byng and Stephen M. Stephens. Macmillan & Co.

To the lover of nature and of animals, to the votary of sport, but above all to the student of human nature, this book appeals. With all its faults, it fulfils the real mission of an autobiography, in giving a true picture of the man who wrote it, while his likeness, forming the frontispiece, with its keen, weather-beaten face, square shoulders, and angular, wiry figure, answers well to our idea of a true English gamekeeper and of the author. As the editors say, they make no apology in presenting this book to the public, and it needs none. Regarded solely as a book, it is discursive and repetitious, abounding in trivialities, and sometimes ungrammatical; but these defects are characteristic of the man, and as a study the narrative is charming.

We have been taught to look on the poacher in a rather romantic light. From the time of Shakspere he has been the hero, and the keeper the tyrant, but now we are shown the other side, and it is such a simple, kindly picture as to make us forget our allegiance and desert to the side of the oppressor. Wilkins captures his poachers in such a practical manner, and treats them so fairly and humanely, even after they have almost beaten him to death, as to leave no place for sentiment. Our keeper's pride in his profession is most pronounced. His lenity, he admits, is policy, but we may doubt it. His vanity is patent, but perfectly harmless. "What would unnerve most men," he says, "just brings me up to the scratch. For instance, with a lion or tiger, I should feel nervous whilst it was some way off, but, when I got close, I should think of nothing but killing him; the possibility of his killing me would not enter into my calculations at all." Needless to say he was never called upon to face either a lion or a tiger, but he had to face dangerous men, and his conduct under those circumstances seems to warrant his boast. The humor which he evidently thinks is necessary in writing a book, is not of a high order. Indeed, it resembles nothing more than the gambols of one of his own setter-pups—the most awkward exhibition in nature, next to the gambols of a lamb. A tremendous joke is perpetrated in the headings of four associated chapters—"Concerning Dogs," "Inasmuch as to Retrievers," "Inasmore as to Retrievers," "Inasmost as to Retrievers." And this humor, such as it is, is not relieved by the comments of the editors, fortunately used sparingly, *e. g.*, "(More humor, we presume)" and "(This Christian spirit of forgiveness is truly beautiful.)"

The hints on dogs, especially on their training, are valuable; and the old keeper's system of kindness, although he does not spare the rod when necessary, might be followed more closely by trainers, with advantage to both dog and master. Altogether, John Wilkins is a man with whom one would like to tramp all day through the field, or while away the pleasant idleness of a summer evening.

Etching and Mezzotint Engraving: Lectures delivered at Oxford by Hubert Herkomer, R.A., M.A., etc. Macmillan & Co. 1892.

THIS book is an exquisite production. It is a small folio with heavy hand-made paper, wide margins, and untrimmed edges; a baker's dozen of most charming etchings and mezzotints by the hand of the author; and a cover of cream-white canvas, simply lettered in gold. All the illustrations, which are literally illustrative of the points made in the text, are beautiful and admirably chosen for their purpose, and the type is large and brilliantly clear, making perusal an easy task.

The lectures really form a handbook, and one of the best we have ever met with, for the treatment of the two branches of engraving designated in the title. Nothing could be clearer, simpler, or more direct than Mr. Herkomer's explanation of the technical processes. This is in strong contrast to most essays upon these subjects, which generally leave the student in such a bewildered frame of mind as regards plates, grounds, acids, tools, printing, etc., that he is little likely to attempt an experiment with them, but rather to be utterly discouraged. Here, however, every step is described and explained in the fullest manner possible, and yet so lucidly that one is beguiled into thinking it cannot be, after all, such a very difficult matter to produce a good etching. Moreover, the artist's temperament and feeling inspire every word, and give to the whole a charm which is as rare in books that treat of processes as it is welcome. The individual characteristics of the different processes of etching, dry point, mezzotint, and the author's new patented process, which he calls, tentatively, "spongotype," are most justly discriminated; and the advantages and disadvantages of each for different styles of work emphatically brought out. A strong plea is made for painter-etcher work as one of the most alluring fields for artistic endeavor; and the limits of copyist and interpretative work are well defined.

Herkomer evidently has one quality which

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does not always go with the highly developed artistic temperament such as he possesses, namely, a clear and orderly mind. This is shown not only throughout his text, but notably in two attractive descriptions which he gives; one is of the "little studio in my German home at Landsberg in Bavaria," and the other of the old paper-maker's workshop, also in Bavaria, whither he went in his search for that almost unique personage who should supply the craft with the hand-made paper so absolutely essential for the use of the etcher, no detail being too trivial for Mr. Herkomer's patient investigation, and no difficulty too great to be surmounted. These difficulties he frankly states at every stage of his elucidations, and even the frontispiece of the book typifies them. It is a striking etching of the etcher at work upon a plate, over which is lightly indicated, with a few masterly touches and in vague development, a female figure, head downward and with arms bound behind. So the etcher works, largely in the dark, not knowing just what will result, his design reversed and bound by many varying physical conditions which require the most careful consideration and attention.

Egypt: Three Essays on the History, Religion, and Art of Ancient Egypt. [By Martin Brimmer and Mrs. John Jay Chapman.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1892. 8vo, pp. viii., 86; 32 illustrations.

THE number of pages contained in this volume is no indication that it is unimportant or cheap. It is to be feared that the authors have in some degree defeated their object of making their book "an introduction to works of higher authority" by giving it the luxurious shape which it possesses. The paper is heavy hand-made linen, and the illustrations are reproduced from remarkably clear photographs by the neograph process. In order to profit as much as possible by a proposed trip to the land of the Nile, the authors made preliminary studies. These essays were afterwards written out while upon the scene from notes previously taken and under the influence of their surroundings. After a careful study of the subject the conclusion was reached which is summed up in the statement, undoubtedly correct, that "some conception of the true nature of the Egyptian religion" is necessary if one would derive all possible advantage from such a journey. In the religion lies the main secret which alone can explain many of the things that are to be seen. The history is important, and the study of Egyptian art of great interest, but they are subordinate to the religion.

While it is not necessary to agree with the authors in the opinion which they have formed as to the substratum of the religion of Egypt, it is impossible not to be impressed with the beauty and finish of the presentation of the facts from which it is inferred that the basis was monotheistic, even if it was esoteric in character. If one wishes to be convinced that the religion was monotheistic in any degree, these pages are to be recommended. But unfortunately the argument is to be regarded as incomplete and unsatisfactory. It is impossible for us to go back to the beginnings of literature, art, or religion in that ancient land. At the very dawn of its history we find it possessed of a language which, though written in characters as clear and as beautifully engraved as in any subsequent age, has well-nigh defied all attempts towards its elucidation and the explanation of its grammatical structure. This language must have been developed long before it was thus written, and the religion as embodied in the texts found in the pyramids of the sixth dynasty was not the growth of a day. A vista is thus opened whose further end no eye can see. To reason as to the very beginning of all these things seems idle, and only a mind specially gifted can hope to offer even a working hypothesis upon which to proceed. It is undoubtedly possible to gather certain facts which give plausibility to the view that the ultimate basis of all the religious conceptions of these lost ages may have been a solar monotheism. But when we find a system which is polytheistic as far back as we can go, the hypothesis that the sun was the centre and spring of all is merely a working hypothesis, nothing more. It is all very pretty if one can believe it, but the proof is not yet forthcoming and will long tarry.

It will be found that the authors have not given due prominence to the fact that each district had its triad of deities, or even its trinity of triads, and that each city had its special "city-god." In fact, the subject of the Egyptian religion is too large to be disposed of summarily. The element of time must enter into the consideration also, since, despite statements to the contrary found in some books which are considered as authorities on the subject, though not in the present work, there was a change, even a development, in the conception of the gods, their attributes and their functions. We have no adequate presentation of the religion of Egypt even so far as it is known, because no one properly equipped for the task has yet taken the pains to work out the results in accordance with modern methods, and so to produce an account which shall show the development from the earliest forms to the latest.

It is open to some doubt whether it is correct to represent the moral maxims of the philosopher Ptah-Hotep as containing the ethical code of the people. Such an assumption in the case of Seneca would certainly not be correct. That many of the injunctions thus set forth are lofty and profitable, even for to-day, is beyond doubt, but that is not the question. To some extent the case is different with the morals of the 'Book of the Dead,' but inferences from these can be pushed too far. The dissertation on the history of the land is quite different from the ordinary presentation. We gladly miss those dates which are so baffling in their uncertainty. Much is said which is of interest, but of dated history there is little. This is scarcely to be regretted, since anything short of an exhaustive study would be even less satisfactory than the division into great periods here indicated. The chapter on art is less adequate than the others. Many problems are connected with this subject, but its treatment here is full of eloquent omissions. Still a hearty appreciation of art is evident, together with a desire to display some of the more important facts.

History of the Town of Oxford, Mass. With Genealogies, etc. By George F. Daniels. Oxford. 1892. Pp. 856.

OXFORD in at least one point has a unique historical interest. It was the site of a Huguenot colony, and the only one in New England, for the Narragansett abortion hardly deserves the name. The Oxford plantation, one of the earliest in Worcester County, survived for a decade from 1686 to 1696, and was then destroyed by an Indian raid. Here, as so often the world over, the French turned out, as it were, pilot-fish, showing the way for English sharks. But Oxford has never been without survivals of the early French, aside from the fifteenth of her present population that was born in Canada. The Huguenot fort, being partly of stone—and now owned by the Huguenot Association—seems to be the best preserved military work of the seventeenth century which New England can show.

The Oxford volume would have been much less than half its present size but for two appendixes. One of these, well-nigh a new departure, describes all transfers of homesteads from the first settler to the present possessor. The other is a sort of encyclopædic genealogy of all Oxfordians up to the year 1850, following each family wherever it has wandered at home and abroad. This last feature will give the book a sort of cosmopolitan interest. The minutiæ of town life, political, religious, educational, military, and industrial, are set forth in a style which shows that the compiler has neglected nothing. Oxford is by no means the first town in the Bay State to stiffen the sinews of research by pecuniary aid. No town should neglect to follow in its footsteps. There is none whose annals can fail to shed side-lights on the evolution of the New England township—the most original product of the Yankee mind, and the protoplasmic germ of our most distinctive national institutions—

> "The baby figure of the giant mass
> Of things to come at large."

The indexes, filling one-twelfth of the book, seventy pages, and as good as they are long, furnish a model worthy of all acceptation. Their maker knew that a volume without an index resembles a clock-face without any hands to show either seconds, minutes, or hours.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Ambrosi, Marietta. Italian Child-Life; or, Marietta's Good Times. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. 75 cents.
Barrie, J. M. When a Man's Single. Waverly Co. 25 cents.
Beddard, F. E. Animal Coloration. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. $3.50.
Boulger, D. C. Lord William Bentinck. [Rulers of India.] Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 60 cents.
Boyd's Co-Partnership and Residence Business Directory of Philadelphia. Philadelphia: Boyd's Directory Office.
Braddon, M. E. The Venetians. Harpers. $1.50.
Bradford, T. L. Homœopathic Bibliography of the United States, 1825–1891. Philadelphia: Boericke & Tafel. $3.50.
Bradshaw, John. The Letters of Chesterfield, with the Characters. 3 vols. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Scribners. $7.50.
Breul, Karl. Schiller's Geschichte des Dreissigjährigen Kriegs. Buch III. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan.
Buchheim, Prof. C. A. First Part of Goethe's Faust. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Campbell, Douglas. The Puritan in Holland, England and America: An Introduction to American History. 2 vols. Harpers.
Cantillon, Richard. Essai sur le Commerce. Reprinted for Harvard University. Boston: Geo. H. Ellis. $1.50.
Chailley-Bert, J. La Colonisation de l'Indo-Chine. L'Expérience Anglaise. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Clarke, William. Walt Whitman. London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. 90 cents.
Cohn, Morris M. An Introduction to the Study of the Constitution. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press. $1.50.
Coleridge, Christabel R. Amethyst; The Story of a Beauty. M. J. Ivers & Co. 25 cents.
Conway, M. D. The Life of Thomas Paine. 2 vols. Putnams. $5.
Crawford, F. Marion. Saracinesca. Macmillan. $1.
Cree, Nathan. Direct Legislation by the People. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. 75 cents.
Cumings, Elizabeth. Miss Matilda Archambeau Van Dorn. Boston: D. Lothrop Co. 75 cents.
Denney, Rev. James. The Epistles to the Thessalonians. [The Expositor's Bible.] A. C. Armstrong & Co. $1.50.
Dowdall, Rev. L. D. Ovid's Metamorphosis. Book I. Cambridge: University Press; New York: Macmillan.

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Drey, Sylvan. Lights and Shadows of the Soul. Baltimore: Cushing & Co. 60 cents.
Gotch, J. A., and Brown, W. T. Architecture of the Renaissance in England. Part IV. London: B. T. Batsford; Boston: Ticknor & Co. $8.
Grindon, Leo H. Lancashire: Brief Historical and Descriptive Notes. Macmillan. $2.
Hall, Bolton. Who Pays Your Taxes? Putnams. $1.25.
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